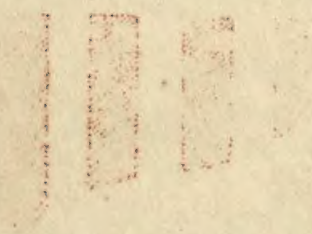


**ELEMENTARY-
SCHOOL
ORGANIZATION
AND
ADMINISTRATION**

HENRY J. OTTO

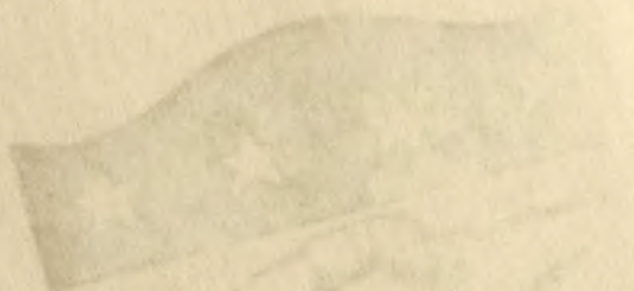


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Elementary - School Organization and Administration

by

HENRY J. OTTO

Graduate Professor of Elementary
Administration and Curriculum
The University of Texas

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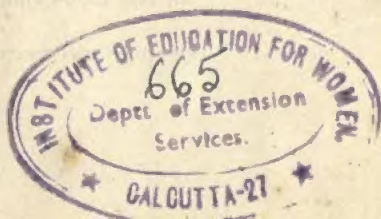
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THIRD EDITION

New York

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PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Editor's Introduction

AS EDITOR OF Professor Otto's second revision of *Elementary-School Organization and Administration*, I take special pleasure in commending it to all educators who are interested in the field of elementary education. The new edition is far more than an up-to-date revision of an old text. The new edition sparkles with new life. It is a completely new orientation and thorough treatment of the problems, theory, and practices of the modern elementary school. It adds a decade of research and practical experimentation to the 1944 edition.

The author presents a most timely and dynamic treatment of the problems and possibilities that now confront the elementary-school staff. Two decades of experience as Director of an experimental elementary school, nation-wide contact as consultant in the improvement of elementary-school programs, and a score of years as a leading investigator, instructor, and writer in the field of elementary education, have given Professor Otto an ideal background for writing a thoroughly practical and authoritative textbook of immediate and lasting value to teachers, supervisors, and administrators.

Of particular value to workers in the field of elementary education is the author's clarification of the basic principles of organization and administration in such a manner that it is now possible to apply them to new and changing situations. For its progressive but practical spirit, its comprehensive grasp of essential principles, and its forthright treatment of basic school issues, the editor heartily recommends *Elementary-School Organization and Administration* as an essential textbook, as a standard library reference, and as a guiding handbook for principals.

FRED C. AYER

Preface

WHEN THE first revision of this book was undertaken in 1942, it became apparent that the "trends of the thirties" demanded a complete rewriting of the manuscript. Since the 1930's so much has again happened in educational thought and practice, and in research bearing upon the problems of elementary education, that the "trends of the forties" demanded new approaches and new viewpoints. Hence this completely rewritten third edition.

Since organization and administration should be continuously in tune with changes in educational theory and should facilitate the application in practice of the implications coming from research, one should anticipate a number of important differences between this and the former edition. The change in chapter titles and in the organization of materials within chapters is indicative of change in basic viewpoint. The student of educational trends might find it interesting to make various kinds of comparisons between this edition and each of the former editions in evidence from research, in viewpoints expressed by the author, and in nation-wide practices as revealed in survey data.

The objective in this country has been to provide a system of free public education administered through a series of units designed to provide articulated progress for children from the nursery school or kindergarten to the university. To organize and to administer the first cycle in this system, commonly termed "elementary education," to nearly 25,000,000 children living throughout all parts of the United States and its territories, in densely as well as in sparsely settled areas, is a major undertaking.

As educational theory and practice have attempted to adjust themselves to, and to keep abreast of, a rapidly changing social order, the scope of elementary education, as measured by the number of children served and by the variety of services rendered, has increased and the school has assumed a different role in the training of youth than it formerly did. To administer current elementary education in the light of modern conceptions of teaching and learning is not an easy task. The organization of the school must be responsive to changes in educational theory if modern psychology and present concepts of teaching are to find expression in classroom instruction. The administrator is confronted continuously with a variety of problems which seek solution through organization and administration. In the attempts to solve these many problems which arise, the administrator will wish to give critical examination to current administrative practices,

to review fundamental principles of organization in the light of current educational thought, and to familiarize himself with progressive practice. It is to assist those who administer elementary education in the analysis of basic problems of organization and administration that this book has been prepared.

Since the book is intended for those who administer elementary education, it should be of interest to superintendents, supervisors, principals, classroom teachers, and others who render services in the elementary school. It is generally recognized that the chief responsibility for the efficient organization and operation of the elementary schools rests with the building principals. Hence the book will probably be of greater interest to elementary-school principals, either those now in service or those contemplating the elementary principalship as a career in education. Doubtless elementary classroom teachers will profit by reading it, as it will give them a more comprehensive view of the organization of the institution in which they teach, and of their part in, and relationship to, the effective administration of the elementary school. The book should also serve well as a textbook in courses in "elementary-school administration" in colleges, teachers' colleges, and universities.

Although the book is primarily a consideration of basic problems in the organization and administration of elementary education, an attempt has been made throughout to relate fundamental principles to practical situations. Whenever possible the principals' and the teachers' relationship to the topics under discussion have been emphasized. At many points illustrations have been drawn from progressive school practice. To keep the volume from becoming too large, it has been necessary to differentiate and select the content. It has been possible to give only brief treatment to some of the topics. For this reason detailed administrative techniques have not been dealt with except as it was found essential to do so in the presentation of principles or in the application of them. It is hoped that whenever a problem is of peculiar local interest the reader will consult the more extensive studies and writings treating of the particular topic. To guide the reader to pertinent related discussions, the manuscript has been supplied liberally with footnote references. The selected bibliography at the end of each chapter is not designed to be comprehensive but rather to supplement the present treatment or to elaborate points of view differing from those of the author.

It is with deep gratitude that the author acknowledges the helpful suggestions which have come from the investigations and the writings of other professional workers in education, and from the many elementary-school principals who have contributed directly or indirectly. It would be an act of ingratitude to overlook the courtesies of authors and publishers who have consented to the use of quoted materials. Complete reference is made in the text at each point where published or unpublished materials have been used.

Special appreciation is expressed to five of the author's graduate students who assisted with bibliographies for certain chapters or proofread some of

the chapters. These students are Mr. Howard L. Sluder, Junior High School Principal, Twin Falls, Idaho; Miss M. Lozier Condon, Associate Professor, Texas Western College, El Paso, Texas; Dr. Waldemar Olson, Elementary-School Principal, Corpus Christi, Texas; Dr. Robert A. Weber, Mississippi State College; and Dr. Edward W. James, East Central State College, Ada, Oklahoma.

H. J. O.

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the long recess, as their dinners were many times frozen, and sometimes their food required cooking. Miss Betty was devoted in her care for them in preparing their frugal repast. Apples were roasted and nuts were cracked in profusion, and then with their old-fashioned games they had an enjoyable time.

The first elementary schools were most simple and direct in their organization and management.³ They were generally held in the homes of the teachers or in one-room buildings of the crudest sort. Although some New England towns built schoolhouses rather early (about 1649), the majority of towns continued to operate the common elementary schools in churches, "vacant carpenters' shops, spare rooms in old dwellings, unoccupied barns, basement rooms, and other places as chance presented."⁴ The towns which did build separate schoolhouses constructed them of "logs with a rough puncheon board running around the walls. Paper greased with lard often took the place of glass in the windows."⁵ Small's account of one of these schools is vivid:⁶

The school benches on which we sat were without backs and sometimes so high that we beguiled the weary school hours by swinging our feet violently back and forth, by which process we worked off a good deal of animal vigor. We sometimes tipped off the bench backwards, and fell atop the children behind us, when we all set up a prodigious howling; not because we were hurt, but we enjoyed the noise hugely and prolonged the commotion as long as we could. When the drowsiness of the dame deepened into a snoring nap, we ran about the room and with the zest that accompanies the doing of forbidden things, we swiftly overturned the benches, misplaced the articles on the table, threw the spelling cards out of the window, and not infrequently ran out into the street.

Contrast these early beginnings with the highly modern city and rural schools of today with their functionally designed classrooms, scientific lighting, artistic design and color, special service rooms, landscaped grounds, wealth of teaching and learning materials, and transportation, health, and welfare services for pupils. Schools today, as in former years, strive to incorporate the best that is known about good schools for children. Each generation has had to face the problems and trends of that generation. The changing society created new problems and needs. Advances in educational thought and research raised other questions. Educational progress has been the net result of the efforts at harmonizing the needs of the society and the frontiers of educational knowledge. Problems of organization, administration, supervision, and teaching have been emergent along

³ Henry Suzzallo, *The Rise of Local School Supervision in Massachusetts*, Contributions to Education, No. 3 (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1906), p. 10.

⁴ F. F. Bunker, *Reorganization of the Public School System*, U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 8 (1916), p. 2.

⁵ Elwood P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919), pp. 35-36.

⁶ Small, *op. cit.*, p. 185.

with the total educational enterprise. The role of organization and administration has always been that of identifying problems and trends, giving leadership to needed and desired changes, and creating the organizational and administrative environment, policies, and procedures so that the best education of the times might be made available to children.

The chief purpose of the remainder of this chapter is to present a brief historical sketch of selected aspects of elementary education in transition so that today's basic problems of elementary-school organization and administration, as treated in subsequent chapters of the book, may be viewed with the tolerance and understanding that historical perspective can give.

THE CHILDREN SERVED

Providing enough adequate school-plant facilities for the increasing number of children to be taught has been a perennial worry of school administrators. The extent of this problem can be comprehended better if one examines the statistics on total population, enrollment, population shifts, and the characteristics of pupil groups. At the time the first U. S. census was taken in 1790 the total population of the continental United States was 3,929,214; in 1950 it was 151,240,000. The early census reports did not provide extensive population analyses by age groups but a fairly good picture of the increase in the school-age population can be obtained from the data in Table 1. Children 5 to 17 years of age (inclusive) increased about 158 per cent between 1870 and 1950. While the percentage that the school population (children 5 to 17 years of age) is of the total population dropped from 31.3 in 1870 to 20.4 in 1950, the percentage of school-age children actually enrolled in schools increased from 57.0 in 1870 to 81.6 in 1950. The shift in these relationships was due to a more widespread parental interest in children's schooling and the influence of compulsory school attendance laws.

The percentage increase in high-school enrollments between 1870 and 1950 was 7013 while that of elementary schools was only 185. The task of providing schooling for elementary pupils was augmented by the huge numbers involved. By 1950 the number enrolled in public schools was 19,405,000. In addition, there were 2,707,777 elementary pupils in private, parochial, and various residential schools. The increased birth rate during the 1940's further swelled elementary-school enrollments so that between 1945 and 1954 practically every city of any size had to extend itself in expanding elementary-school facilities. It is estimated that peak enrollments in elementary schools will be reached by 1957, at which time the total enrollment will be about 26,594,000 in Grades 1 to 8 inclusive.

The growth in elementary education can be understood even better if a few additional facts are considered. In 1870 only 59.3 per cent of the children enrolled attended each day; by 1950 this figure had risen to 88.7.

The average number of days attended during the year by each pupil enrolled increased from 78.4 in 1870 to 157.9 in 1950. The school year had been lengthened from an average of 132.2 days in 1870 to 177.9 in 1950. The first kindergartens affiliated with public-school systems were established in Boston, Cleveland, and St. Louis between 1870 and 1873. By 1950 public-school kindergartens in cities enrolled 1,034,000 pupils. Schooling for children under five years of age has also commanded attention. Although Robert Owen established a nursery school in Harmony, Indiana, in 1826 and Boston opened the first pioneer type of American nursery school in 1860, the real interest in preschool and parental education did not develop until after the beginning of the twentieth century. The first day nursery to become a part of a public-school system was created in Los Angeles in 1910 and was formally sponsored and supported by the Board of Education in 1917. By 1950 there were 3495 nursery schools divided into the following types: tuition, 1506; college, 222; philanthropic, 1602; special, 114; and public school, 51.

TABLE 1: Total Population and Various Public School Statistics, 1870 to 1950*

ITEMS	1870	1900	1930	1940	1950
1. Total population	38,558,371	75,602,515	122,775,046	131,891,632	151,240,000
2. Children 5-17 years of age (inclusive)	12,055,443	21,404,322	31,571,322	29,805,259	30,788,000
3. Number enrolled, kindergarten and first eight grades	6,791,295	14,983,859	21,278,593	18,832,098	19,405,000
4. Number enrolled in kindergartens	1,252	131,657	723,443	594,647	1,034,000
5. Number enrolled, Grades 9 through 12 and high-school post-graduates	80,227	519,251	4,399,422	6,601,444	5,707,000
6. Per cent that school population is of total population	31.3	28.3	25.7	22.6	20.4
7. Per cent of children 5-17 years of age (inclusive) enrolled	57.00	72.43	81.3	85.3	81.6
8. Per cent of children enrolled attending each day	59.3	68.6	82.8	86.7	88.7
9. Average number of days schools were in session	132.2	144.3	172.7	175.0	177.9
10. Average number of days attended by each pupil enrolled	78.4	99.0	143.0	151.7	157.9

* Adapted from Ch. 2, "Statistics of State School Systems, 1949-50," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1948-50* (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1952).

Shift in population from rural to urban has also added to the problem of providing schooling for elementary pupils. In 1790 the population of the United States was 94.9 per cent rural but by 1950 only 36.3 per cent

lived in areas classified as rural (Table 2). The rural group includes the "rural-farm" and the "rural-nonfarm," the latter group having been on a rapid increase during the period from 1930 to 1950. The 1920 census, for the first time, showed urban population to be larger than the rural. It is estimated that the urban and rural groups were about equal in numbers in 1917 or 1918. The shift of population from rural to urban has placed a tremendous strain upon urban centers in their efforts to keep reasonably adequate schools apace of the increasing hordes of elementary pupils. The reality of this population impact can be seen from the data in Table 3.

TABLE 2: U. S. Population Data, 1790 to 1950

YEAR	TOTAL POPULATION, CONTINENTAL UNITED STATES	URBAN	RURAL	PER CENT RURAL
1790	3,929,214	201,655	3,727,559	94.9
1870	38,558,371	9,902,361	28,656,010	74.3
1900	75,994,575	30,159,921	45,834,654	60.3
1930	122,775,046	68,954,823	53,820,223	43.8
1940	131,669,275	74,423,702	57,245,573	43.5
1950	150,697,361	96,028,000	54,669,361	36.3

TABLE 3: Elementary-School Housing Problems as Dealt with in Four Large Cities Between September 1, 1940, and September 1, 1951 *

ITEMS	NEW YORK CITY	CHICAGO	HOUSTON	SEATTLE
1. Existing elementary schools to which additions were built or actually begun between September 1, 1940, and September 1, 1951	21	32	20	7
2. Completely new elementary schools built or actually begun between September 1, 1940, and September 1, 1951	31	25	23	9
3. Permanent elementary classrooms added between September 1, 1940, and September 1, 1951	1322	830	600	165
4. Temporary elementary classrooms in use, September, 1951	150	55	526	139
5. Elementary classes on half-day sessions, September, 1951	none	253	16	none
6. Total number of elementary schools in operation, September, 1951 ...	594	357	109	68
7. Enrollment in smallest elementary school in operation, September, 1951	31	224	64	140
8. Enrollment in largest elementary school in operation, September, 1951	2977	2787	1814	1321

* Data secured through courtesy of: George F. Pigott, Jr., Associate Superintendent, New York City; Don C. Rogers, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Elementary Education, Chicago, Ill.; Edwin D. Martin, Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Research and Pupil Accounting, Houston, Texas; W. Virgil Smith, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Seattle, Wash.

The average number of days attended during the year by each pupil enrolled increased from 78.4 in 1870 to 157.9 in 1950. The school year had been lengthened from an average of 132.2 days in 1870 to 177.9 in 1950. The first kindergartens affiliated with public-school systems were established in Boston, Cleveland, and St. Louis between 1870 and 1873. By 1950 public-school kindergartens in cities enrolled 1,034,000 pupils. Schooling for children under five years of age has also commanded attention. Although Robert Owen established a nursery school in Harmony, Indiana, in 1826 and Boston opened the first pioneer type of American nursery school in 1860, the real interest in preschool and parental education did not develop until after the beginning of the twentieth century. The first day nursery to become a part of a public-school system was created in Los Angeles in 1910 and was formally sponsored and supported by the Board of Education in 1917. By 1950 there were 3495 nursery schools divided into the following types: tuition, 1506; college, 222; philanthropic, 1602; special, 114; and public school, 51.

TABLE 1: Total Population and Various Public School Statistics, 1870 to 1950*

ITEMS	1870	1900	1930	1940	1950
1. Total population	38,558,371	75,602,515	122,775,046	131,891,632	151,240,000
2. Children 5-17 years of age (inclusive)	12,055,443	21,404,322	31,571,322	29,805,259	30,788,000
3. Number enrolled, kindergarten and first eight grades	6,791,295	14,983,859	21,278,593	18,832,098	19,405,000
4. Number enrolled in kindergartens	1,252	131,657	723,443	594,647	1,034,000
5. Number enrolled, Grades 9 through 12 and high-school post-graduates	80,227	519,251	4,399,422	6,601,444	5,707,000
6. Per cent that school population is of total population	31.3	28.3	25.7	22.6	20.4
7. Per cent of children 5-17 years of age (inclusive) enrolled	57.00	72.43	81.3	85.3	81.6
8. Per cent of children enrolled attending each day	59.3	68.6	82.8	86.7	88.7
9. Average number of days schools were in session	132.2	144.3	172.7	175.0	177.9
10. Average number of days attended by each pupil enrolled	78.4	99.0	143.0	151.7	157.9

* Adapted from Ch. 2, "Statistics of State School Systems, 1949-50," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1948-50* (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1952).

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schools for exceptional children. By 1940 every state and the District of Columbia had established special residential schools for socially maladjusted youth, there being 112 such schools; in addition there were 29 county and municipal schools for the socially handicapped. Also, by 1940, every state had made some provision for the institutionalization of its feeble-minded and every state had made arrangements for the education of its deaf and its blind children in residential schools, either within the state or by arrangement in neighboring states. The statistics for 1947 were as follows: for the blind, 56 schools in 43 states with 5235 pupils; for the deaf, 81 schools in 47 states with 13,123 pupils; for the mentally deficient, 140 schools in 47 states with 21,562 pupils; for the epileptic, 10 schools in 10 states with 1096 pupils; and for the delinquent, 167 schools in 48 states and the District of Columbia with 22,745 pupils.

Children who are physically unable to attend school but are well enough to receive instruction are taught in homes and hospitals by itinerant teachers. In 1948, in cities of 30,000 or more population, 10,573 elementary pupils were receiving home instruction and 9949 were receiving instruction in hospitals.⁹

SCHOOL BUILDINGS AND GROUNDS

Comparison of elementary-school facilities over a long period of years gives about as vivid an impression of "elementary education in transition" as can be secured from any one source. The early paragraphs of this chapter gave some notion of the types of structures that were built in the New England colonies when separate schoolhouses were built. The fact that so many of the schools in the Middle Atlantic states were parochial schools tended to retain them in the churches. The few separate schoolhouses that were built were constructed similar to those in New England. The conditions under which elementary education in the Southern colonies was carried on were not conducive to the establishment of a large number of schoolhouses. Those which were constructed were built of logs (Fig. 1) and very primitive in character.¹⁰

The dame schools which flourished in New England between 1650 and 1800 were usually conducted in the homes of the dames. Enrollment in a dame school usually did not exceed thirty pupils consisting of boys aged four to seven and girls of all ages from four years upward. These classes were kept around the family fireplace, in vacant rooms in the dame's home, on porches, in the vestibule of churches, and, for those that were in session only during the summer months, in such schoolhouses as were available.

Toward the close of the eighteenth century there came into prominence, particularly in the New England states, a type of school organization known as the "departmental school." Its chief characteristic was the vertical divi-

⁹ "Statistics of Special Schools and Classes for Exceptional Children," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1946-48*, op. cit., Ch. 5.

¹⁰ E. W. Knight, *Public Education in the South* (Boston, Ginn and Co., 1922), p. 43



FIG. 1: The oldest wooden schoolhouse in the United States, built by the Spaniards at St. Augustine, Fla., sometime between 1586 and 1763. The downstairs living-room served as classroom; the teacher's rooming quarters were upstairs. Courtesy of city of St. Augustine, Fla.

sion of the course into a reading school and a writing school. The pupils attended each department alternately, changing from one school to the other at the end of each half-day or day's session.¹¹ Each department had one room large enough to house 180 pupils. A later departure in the organization was to annex two or three small recitation rooms to the large hall. In the small recitation rooms the teachers "heard the lessons." In some places the reading school and the writing school were housed in the same building, one on the first floor and the other on the second floor. The interior design of the floor plan can be envisioned from the description given.

Another type of school organization that was introduced shortly after 1800 was the Lancastrian or monotorial school.¹² It flourished extensively in the Middle Atlantic and Southern states, and partially in New England, from 1810 to 1830. But its popularity was short lived. It gradually faded away after 1830 so that by 1840 only a few traces remained. A Lancastrian school consisted of a large room in which were seated from 200 to 1000

¹¹ Bunker, *op. cit.*, p. 29; G. H. Martin, *Evolution of the Massachusetts Public School System* (New York, D. Appleton and Co., 1894), p. 51.

¹² J. F. Reigart, *The Lancastrian System of Instruction in the Schools of New York City*, Contributions to Education, No. 81 (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1916); C. C. Ellis, *Lancastrian Schools in Philadelphia* (Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania Press, 1907).

pupils. At the end of the large room was a platform for the teacher's desk, flanked on each side by a small desk for the principal monitors. The center of the large room was filled with two rows of benches, leaving an aisle in the middle and one on each side. Each bench was long enough to seat 9 or 10 pupils. At the end of each bench arrangements were made for seating the monitor. The monitors usually were older pupils who could help the younger ones; usually the teacher instructed the monitors who in turn instructed the students on their respective benches. The size and interior arrangement of the Lancastrian school is thus quite clear.

During the eighteenth century the reading and writing schools gradually developed into what was called the English Grammar school. Admission to the English Grammar school up to and even after 1850 required some knowledge of simple reading and arithmetic. Before 1800 these rudiments of reading and arithmetic had been taught in the dame schools in New England. Dame schools, however, were not reaching a large enough proportion of the pupils. This fact, together with a growing interest in universal education, was undoubtedly a major factor in bringing about the establishment of the so-called primary schools which began to spring up shortly after 1800. In Boston 20 primary schools were organized in 1818; by 1855 Boston had 193 such schools. The primary schools were placed so as to be near the homes of the pupils. Until 1835 the primary schools in Boston were housed in vacant rooms, basements, or any available space. Each was a one-teacher school with 30 to 40 pupils aged four to seven or eight. Later, however, the Lancastrian plan was inaugurated into the primary schools and the enrollment was increased to 100 or more and monitors were used.

The primary schools were publicly supported and were administered by a Primary School Committee which had little or no relationship to the Grammar School Board. From 1835 to 1855, 45 primary schoolhouses were built in Boston. They were constructed of wood, contained but a single room, and were unplastered. It was not until after 1864 that a number of these small primary schools were combined and a single structure of six rooms was built. By a gradual transitional process the primary schools in those states in which they were to be found were made a part of the elementary school. In New York this took place as early as 1830. In Boston, in 1820, one primary school was held in the basement of a Grammar school. In 1833 a request was made in Boston that all children more than eight years of age who had not yet learned the rudiments of reading and arithmetic should be admitted to the Grammar schools.¹³ Finally, in 1855, the Primary School Committee of Boston was dissolved and all the schools were placed under one School Committee.

¹³ J. M. Wightman, *Annals of the Boston Primary School Committee* (Boston, G. C. Rand and Avery, 1860), p. 148; Garrett E. Rickard, "Establishment of Graded Schools in American Cities," I and II, *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 47 (June, 1947), pp. 575-585 and Vol. 48 (February, 1948), pp. 326-335.

The final outcome of this unifying movement was that it resulted in better articulation and government of the entire period of elementary education. Unification, however, did not come at once or to the extent that it might have been desired. Many of the schools retained a horizontal grading. In some places the primary and grammar schools covered the entire period of elementary education, while in others the divisions were primary, intermediate, and grammar or primary, secondary, intermediate, and grammar.

The graded elementary school as it is known today was not the outcome of a revolutionary movement which created order out of chaos. The graded elementary school was merely another stage in the evolutionary process which had been going on for half a century.

The first step in this development was the horizontal division of the period of elementary education into schools of two or more different grades. The nomenclature for these different grades varied considerably. In Boston the period of elementary education was divided into primary and grammar schools; in Concord, New Hampshire, into primary, intermediate, and grammar; while many other variations were to be found in other towns. This aspect of the movement had spread to nearly all the New England towns by 1840.

The second step in the process was housing two or more of these broad grade-units in one building. In Boston, in 1820, the Primary School Committee frequently housed the primary school in the basement of a grammar school. In New York, in 1810, these two units were frequently housed in one building. Later, as three-story grammar-school buildings were constructed, the first floor was devoted entirely to the primary school. In some places the intermediate and grammar classes were housed in one building, while the primary schools remained scattered in small units. Innumerable variations in practice were characteristic of the movement, but out of it finally evolved the elementary school as it is known today, retaining some of the old names for various groups of grades, but all combining to make a composite, unified whole.

The third step in this gradual evolution of the graded school associates itself with the classification of pupils. The departmental school, from its earliest inception, classified the pupils into groups in reading and writing. Although this was a vertical division, it was one form of classification. The primary schools, so common in New England from 1818 to 1850, had their pupils grouped into four or six classes, depending upon the progress they had made. The Lancastrian schools of Philadelphia and other Middle Atlantic states had the pupils grouped into eight classes. With the extensive use of monitors, each of whom taught 9 or 10 scholars, it was possible to grade the course of study very minutely, and to classify pupils accordingly. Even in the departmental reading school, it was common practice by 1823 to divide the work of the seven years into four divisions, thus permitting the pupils to be divided into four classes.

A fourth factor, no doubt an outgrowth of those previously mentioned, was the change in building construction. At first each of the reading and writing departments occupied one large room or hall in which the master and one or more assistant teachers held recitations at the same time. The resulting confusion soon revealed the practicability of adding two or more small recitation rooms in which the teachers could instruct smaller groups in private.

The next logical step was to break down the departmental plan of organization, to increase the number of small rooms, and to reclassify the pupils so that each teacher occupying one of these small rooms taught all the subjects to the pupils assigned to her. This step was taken by J. D. Philbrick in 1848 (Fig. 2).¹⁴ This evolutionary change in elementary-school organization is shown graphically in Fig. 3.



FIG. 2: Quincy Grammar School, Boston, 1848. From C. L. Spain, *The Platoon School* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1924), p. 123. Reproduced by permission of the publisher.

The Quincy Grammar School of Boston, organized in 1848 by J. D. Philbrick, was the first city graded school in America.¹⁵ Its organization was similar to that developed in the German gymnasiums.¹⁶ The graded organization of the Quincy Grammar School was the next step in the evolution

¹⁴ J. D. Philbrick, *City School Systems in the United States*, U. S. Bureau of Education, Circular of Information No. 1 (1885).

¹⁵ Bunker, *op. cit.*, p. 29.

¹⁶ "The birth of the first graded school (a German gymnasium) occurred in 1537 when Johann Sturm organized his famous school at Strasburg. His plan originally contemplated nine classes, corresponding to the nine years that pupils spent in his gymnasium, each class having its own teacher, its prescribed studies, examinations, and promotions, in very much the same way that our schools of today have." J. C. Boykin, *Class Intervals in City Public Schools*, Report of the Commissioner of Education, Vol. 2 (1890-1891), p. 981.

of elementary-school organization. The movements which made possible this new advance have been set forth previously.

The building in which the Quincy School was housed was a four-story structure, the fourth floor being a hall or assembly room large enough to accommodate the entire school of about 660 pupils. In buildings constructed at a later date this large fourth floor was eliminated. The three lower floors provided 12 separate classrooms, each room being large enough to seat 55 pupils. It was probably the first grammar school which contained a separate desk and chair for each pupil. The division of the building into 12 classrooms made it possible to place in each room, under the charge of one teacher, pupils of about the same age.¹⁷

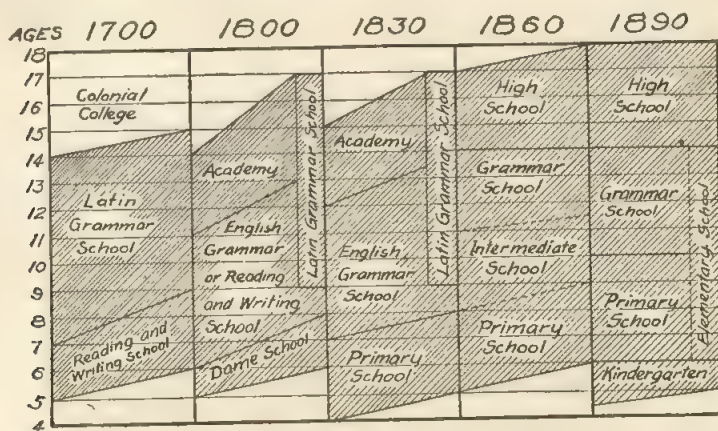


FIG. 3: Evolution of the essential features of the American public school system. Adapted from E. P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States*, p. 140. Reproduced by permission of, and arrangement with, Houghton Mifflin Co.

The advantages of the graded organization were soon recognized and many of the large halls of departmental schools were partitioned so as to form a number of smaller classrooms. Although school administrators readily recognized the feasibility of the graded plan, the difficulty of adjusting the old buildings to the new organization prevented many cities from effecting the graded organization as a city-wide practice. The complete reorganization of the elementary schools of a district could be brought about only as the older buildings were remodeled or new buildings erected. Consequently, the extension of graded schools was slow at first, but within 12 or 15 years after the establishment of the Quincy Grammar School of Boston nearly every city or town had adopted the plan, at least in the newer buildings.¹⁸

¹⁷ Bunker, *op. cit.*, p. 29.

¹⁸ "The movement toward graded schools developed slowly at first, but by 1860 nearly every town and city of any consequence in the country, as well as many populous rural communities, had its own unified system of schools organized on a graded basis with a defined course of study, embracing definite time limits, the whole sanctioned and protected by legislative enactment." *Ibid.*, p. 54.

The pattern for the design of elementary-school buildings which emerged with the expansion of the graded organization as described in the preceding paragraphs became the model which was followed more or less until well into the 1920's. This helps to explain why most of the elementary-school buildings built between 1880 or 1890 and 1920, and some even as late as 1930, were two-story and even three-story buildings, built like a square or rectangular box with a central corridor or a two-story or three-story central dome, and partitions to make classrooms. School was intended to be a place in which children sat on benches or in seats and learned from books. The building needed to provide only for rooms in which children studied the subjects that were offered. There was no need for administrative offices, a health suite, auditorium, library, lunchroom, gymnasium, playgrounds, work alcoves, garden spots, wooded areas, and the other features now found in modern elementary-school plants.

The change in school-plant facilities and design which has come about largely since 1920, and which is only now reaching a true functional plane, has been due to a variety of influences. A concerted movement for improved health and physical fitness began in about 1918 after World War I. School health and physical-education programs brought the need for health service rooms, gymnasias, playgrounds, adequately lighted classrooms, better temperature control, better ventilation, and greater use of outdoor teaching areas. Broader concepts about the curriculum and how children learn prompted the need for larger classrooms designed and equipped for a variety of activities. School libraries have become essential instruments in fostering the new curriculum. The expanding base of teaching and learning aids commanded provisions for the use of films, slides, recordings, radio programs, exhibit materials, and now television is crowding for recognition as a learning medium. Several forces converged during the depression years of the early 1930's to create school-lunch programs as an accepted aspect of modern schools. Elementary-school plants built during the 1940's reflect the incorporation of all these ideas and forces. Those constructed in the 1950's will reflect, not only the best ideas tried successfully during the 1940's, but also experimentation with needs and ideas projected for the future (Figs. 4*a* and *b*). Elementary-school buildings and grounds reflect progress in the architectural field as well as changing conceptions and functions of elementary education. School buildings provide an interesting approach to a study of the changing character of elementary education. Further details about elementary-school buildings of the present decade will be presented in a subsequent chapter.

THE CURRICULUM

Another dramatic view of elementary education in transition, equal to the change in school buildings, can be obtained by examining the changes in the instructional offering. The curriculum of the elementary school, as estab-

lished by the Massachusetts law of 1647, included only reading and writing. This was not changed by law until 1789, when arithmetic, the English language, orthography, and decent behavior were added. *The New England Primer*, patterned after English models, was published in 1690. Although Edmund Coote (in 1596) had published spellers in England, orthography did not gain prominence in American schools until after Noah Webster's "Blue back speller," entitled *Elementary Spelling Book*, Part I of his *Grammatical Institute of the English Language*, was published in 1784. Arithmetic was common but not universal in colonial curricula. Arithmetic was generally neglected before 1800.

Geography was not common in American elementary schools before 1800. Bronson Alcott, writing in 1824, stated that up to that time geography as a science had received little attention in the public schools of New England. The first American geography was published by Jedidiah Morse in 1789. History was seldom studied in the first quarter of the nineteenth century; in fact, until late in the nineteenth century, the common practice was to teach history only in the last two grades of the elementary school. By 1860 history had secured a separate place in many elementary schools. Payne, writing in 1905, noted that there was a clearly marked tendency either to make civics a separate subject or to add extra time to history and to teach it as a part of that subject.

Eight other subjects entered the elementary-school curriculum during the last half of the nineteenth century. Elementary science and nature study, which began as an offshoot of Pestalozzian object lessons, were introduced into American elementary schools about 1870. Literature, as a recognized area of experience for elementary-school pupils, did not find a place in schools until about 1900. Payne (in 1905) characterized language or English (as distinct from grammar), drawing, elementary science and nature study, manual training, and civics as the newly introduced subjects which showed the direction in which the curriculum was growing. By 1905 a few of the larger cities had added manual training, cooking, and sewing. Payne pointed out (in 1905) that only in New York City did subjects other than the "three R's" receive much attention; reading, writing, spelling, grammar, language lessons, composition, arithmetic, geography, and history received barely 60 per cent of the allotted time. Payne raised the question, "Will the New York curriculum in its extreme movement toward what are known as the content studies be followed by these superintendents (in other large cities), or will New York under force of popular conservative opinion be forced to retreat from its present curriculum?"¹⁹

Since 1900 nine additional fields or areas of emphasis have found their way into the elementary-school program. Most of the progress which has been made in health instruction and physical education has come since 1900

¹⁹ Bruce R. Payne, *Public Elementary School Curricula* (New York, Silver, Burdett and Co., 1905), p. 62.

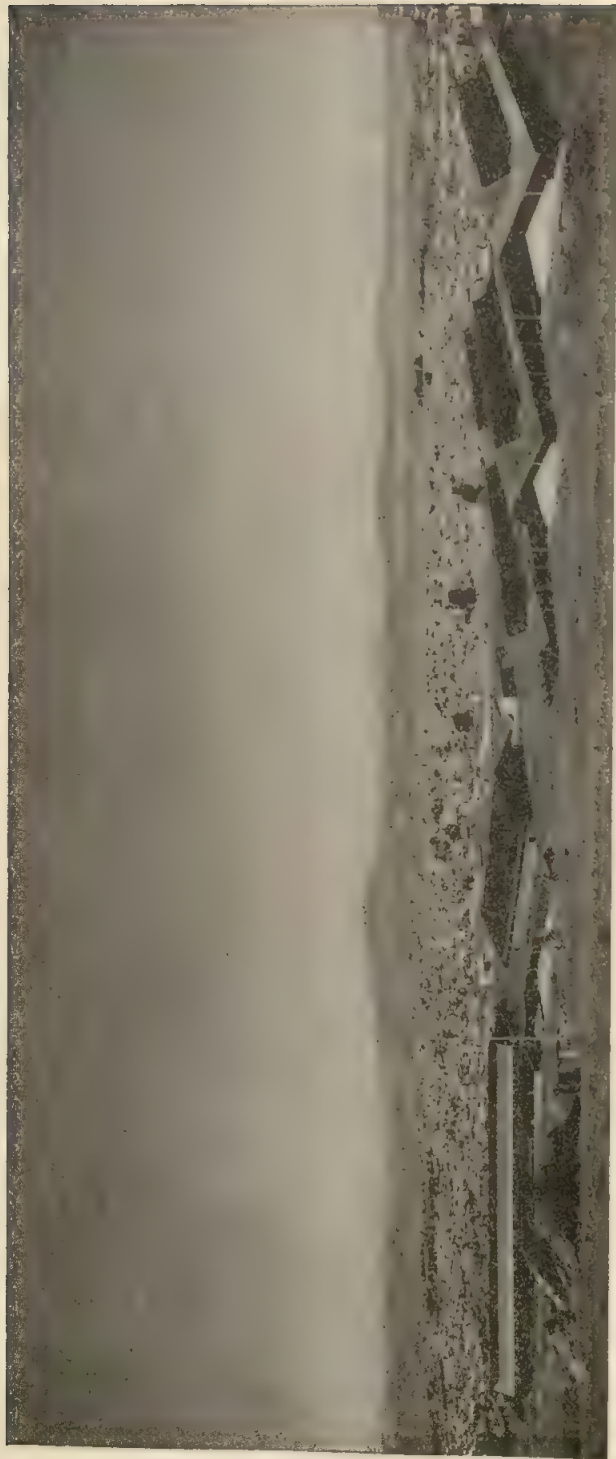


FIG. 4a: Mira Vista Elementary School, Richmond, Cal. Located on a 23-acre hillside site, facing into the southwest winds, and overlooking San Francisco Bay, this school for kindergarten and first six grades is nestled into the hillside. It embodies the "open plan" typical of the newer California schools, with "finger-style" corridors on the south as a shield against the sun, thus leaving north windows unobstructed to bring in the valued north light. Classrooms have bilateral lighting evenly distributed. Outdoor shields or "eyebrows" on the bay side and skylights on the land side protect windows against glare. Courtesy of Dr. George D. Miner, Superintendent of Schools, and J. C. Warnecke, architect.

and more particularly since 1915. Health education received its impetus from the W.C.T.U., which sought state legislation to require the teaching of the "effects of alcohol and tobacco." The first legislation for state-wide health and physical education was enacted in North Dakota in 1899; by 1934, 34 states had laws requiring physical education. Special emphasis on character education developed in the 1920's; in 1932 the Department of Superintendence of the N.E.A. published its yearbook on *Character Education*. Attention to "conservation education" and safety education practices developed during the 1930's. At present we are urged by national and state agencies to give more attention to inter-American relations, the Far East, the

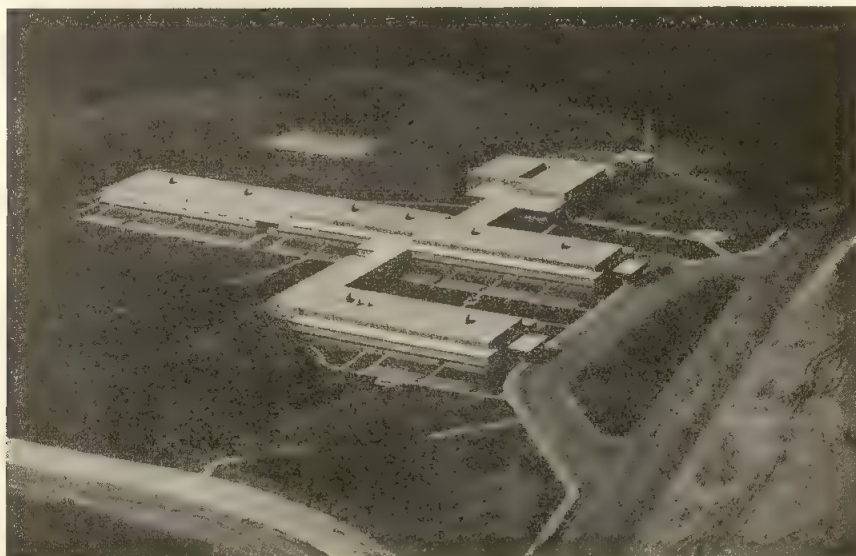


FIG. 4b: Aerial photo of Casis Elementary School, Austin, Texas, a one-story, 20-classroom building located on a 14-acre site. It is a central corridor design with directional glass blocks in clerestory and upper portion of classrooms. Gymnasium and cafetorium are in wing near heating plant; wing on the left is specially designed to serve all types of exceptional children who also have membership in regular classes. Courtesy of Mears Studio and Page, Southerland, Page, architects.

Near East, and the United Nations. Within recent years, the laws of several states have authorized the teaching of conversational Spanish in the elementary grades. The war and its aftermath of social unrest brought new meaning to citizenship education and emphasized again the importance of indoctrinating children in the fundamental principles and procedures of democracy and democratic ways of living and of working together.

This brief summary shows that prior to 1800 the elementary-school curriculum consisted of reading and writing, with some schools also teaching arithmetic and language. Between 1800 and 1900, 13 subjects found their way into the program: arithmetic, language, spelling, history, civics,

geography, nature study or science, art, music, literature, cooking, sewing, and manual training. Since 1900 nine additional subjects have been added, thus giving a total of 24 subjects or "areas of special emphasis."

This much-expanded instructional offering of elementary schools might be more manageable if it were all that were to be included in the curriculum. But two other groups of activities must also be recognized. Largely since 1920 elementary schools have been encouraged to expand the number of co-curricular activities, such as assembly or auditorium programs, special interest clubs, and student helper groups. A survey made in 1944 revealed 42 different activities which were classified by one or more schools as co-curricular.²⁰ The ones most commonly found were assemblies, clubs, safety patrols, safety councils, athletic events, student council, music groups (choral singing, glee club, rhythm band, orchestra, band), and school paper. Only two schools out of 532 reported that no co-curricular activities were sponsored.

The other twentieth-century addition to the elementary-school curriculum consists of adult-interest activities. As adults became enthusiastic about some things which merited or needed attention, movements of various kinds were started, and once they got under way the schools were asked to promote them or to participate in them. A city school superintendent in 1950 reported that in one school year 89 different requests had been presented to him soliciting the schools' participation. National Drama Week, National Music Week, Army Day, Navy Day, National Education Week, Junior Red Cross projects, special temperance drives, various ticket sales, scrap drives, and Community Chest drives are examples. A recent survey of a school system revealed 16 different adult-interest activities actually engaged in by the elementary schools in that community.²¹ Thirty different local organizations or individuals were represented in the local adult sponsoring groups. In the course of a nine months' school year the pupils in 109 classrooms devoted a total of 360,781,890 pupil-minutes to these activities.

The expanding curriculum represents educational enrichment for children and reflects the demands which the changing nature of society places on the schools. It also creates many new problems. What kinds of curriculum revisions are implied or imperative? How may curriculum synthesis be maintained? What curriculum design and daily schedules can be developed to maintain effective teaching and learning in the face of this multiplicity of activities? What implications are there for in-service education of teachers? For parent education?

²⁰ Henry J. Otto, *Organizational and Administrative Practices in Elementary Schools in the United States*, University of Texas Publication No. 4544 (Austin, University of Texas Press, 1945), p. 60.

²¹ *Report of the Survey of the Public Schools of Waco, Texas* (Austin, University of Texas Press, 1947).

AGES AND GRADES INCLUDED

Schooling for children under six years of age is not a twentieth-century innovation. The dame schools which flourished between 1650 and 1800 admitted both boys and girls at age four. The primary schools which replaced the dame schools and flourished during most of the nineteenth century admitted children at age four. As the several types of schools evolved into the so-called "elementary school" after about 1860, various social and economic forces were at work which tended to postpone the age at which children started their schooling. Among these forces were the industrial revolution, the westward movement, the distinctly rural character of the population, and sparsity of population in many areas. Except for the very few cities that maintained kindergartens, the general trend of practice had established age six, or even seven or eight, as the time appropriate for children to begin school. The latter concept had become so broadly accepted by 1900 that most of the early compulsory school attendance laws set ages seven, eight, or nine as the lower limit of compulsory attendance. In the process of this transition of thought about schooling for young children any schooling below age six was not considered a part of the elementary school. Hence the kindergarten developed as a separate entity and schooling for children under four years of age practically disappeared from the scene. The kindergarten's lack of status as an integral part of the elementary school has placed it at the mercy of local leadership and the ups and downs of local school budgets. Even today the school census in some states does not require the inclusion of children under six and several states do not include children under six in the allocation of state aid funds. The number of kindergartens and the number of school systems operating kindergartens has fluctuated noticeably from time to time.

During the past few decades the profession has been concerned with re-establishment of schooling for children under six and with the re-amalgamation of schooling for young children with the established elementary school. Progress in the former regard has been encouraging. Nation-wide data on the number of public and nonpublic nursery schools and kindergartens are not available but there has been a marked increase since 1945 in the number of such public and nonpublic schools. The U. S. Office of Education reported 53.4 per cent of five-year-olds in school attendance in 1948.²² An earlier report showed 20.1 per cent of children from two to five years old in school in urban areas.²³ The problem of integrating schooling for children under six with the elementary school is still largely unsolved. In theory all pre-secondary schooling is defined as elementary education but in practice

²² *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1946-48, op. cit.*, p. 11.

²³ *Schools for Children Under Six*, Bulletin No. 5 (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1947), p. 24.

the kindergarten and the nursery school are still considered separate units in most places.

Children's ages for the upper limit of the elementary school are determined largely by the number of grades encompassed by the elementary school and promotion policies. By 1890 an elementary-school course to be completed at age 13 or 14 had been adopted quite uniformly in all parts of the United States.²⁴ In the South this course had been shaped into a seven-year program; in the New England states a nine-year elementary school had become the predominant type, while the eight-year elementary school was favored in other sections of the country.

As early as 1888 the elementary-school course which required eight or nine years for its completion was challenged.²⁵ Discussion of the proper length of elementary- and secondary-school courses and their relationship to college work led to the appointment in 1893 of the Committee of Ten on Economy of Time in Education. Almost continuously since then, the question of a shorter elementary-school course has been a live issue.²⁶ Committee reports were being submitted at intervals from 1893 to 1913.²⁷ Although the deliberations of these committees and their reports dealt primarily with aspects of the secondary education, certain elements of each of these reports related to problems associated with the organization of the upper grades of the elementary school. The reports of the committees gave special attention to the question of including Grades 7 and 8 in the secondary-school course and finally led to an investigation, begun in 1925, in which careful examination was made of the relation of administrative units, the length of the school day and the school year, age of admission to the kindergarten and first grade, enrollments, subject offering by grades, and the like in 610 school systems in the United States. A comparison of the achievement of pupils in Grades 7 and 8 in selected seven-year and eight-year elementary schools in the United States and Canada was also made. "By way of general summary of the whole study," the Commission concluded, "it may safely be asserted that ample evidence is present in the experience of many school systems of the United States and Canada that elementary education of a sat-

²⁴ Philbrick, *op. cit.*, p. 20.

²⁵ Bunker, *op. cit.*, Ch. 3.

²⁶ Otis Ashmore, "The Elimination of the Grammar School," *Addresses and Proceedings of the N.E.A.* (1900), pp. 424-426; J. M. Greenwood, "Seven-Year Course of Study for Ward-School Pupils," *Addresses and Proceedings of the N.E.A.* (1903), p. 247, and "A Seven-Year Course for Elementary Pupils," *Addresses and Proceedings of the N.E.A.* (1907), pp. 290-294; E. W. Lyttle, "Report of the Committee on Six-Year Course of Study," *Addresses and Proceedings of the N.E.A.* (1908), pp. 625-628; H. S. Weet, "Shortening the Course," *Addresses and Proceedings of the N.E.A.* (1914), pp. 269-271; C. H. Judd, "Debate: The Best Organization for American Schools Is a Plan Which Shall Divide these Schools into Six Years of Elementary Training and Six Years of Secondary Training," *Addresses and Proceedings of the N.E.A.* (1916), pp. 917-925.

²⁷ For a summary of these reports, see W. A. Smith, *The Junior High School* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1930), Ch. III.

isfactory degree of richness of content can be provided in seven grades. It is shown that pupils can be trained through a seven-grade curriculum to the point where they can efficiently pursue high-school work."²⁸

It is difficult to express in exact terms the nature or the amount of reorganization which may have resulted from the influences exerted by such investigations and reports as have been referred to above. At any rate, the work of the upper elementary grades was reorganized in various ways. As early as 1900 departmental teaching was introduced into the schools of New York City²⁹ and separately organized junior high schools were established in Columbus, Ohio, and Berkeley, California, in 1909. Los Angeles followed in 1911. Since then the number of reorganized high schools has increased rapidly. In 1938 there were reported 9534 reorganized high schools, 8575 of which had incorporated one or more of the upper elementary grades into the secondary-school program. A tabulation made in 1930 in the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States* showed that in over half (54 per cent) of 738 cities with a population of 10,000 or over the elementary-school period consisted of less than seven grades. It is of interest to note that in 14 systems the lower school concluded with the fifth grade. In 1938 in the 945 cities with 10,000 and more population, 40.6 per cent of elementary-school children attended six-year elementary schools and 59.4 per cent attended eight-year schools. By 1948, 78 per cent of 1372 city school systems which operated the total program of elementary and secondary education concluded the elementary school with the sixth grade and only 23 per cent continued the elementary program through the eighth grade. In the districts which operated elementary schools only 56 per cent were maintaining an eight-year program; the rest had a six-year elementary school and some type of junior-high-school organization.³⁰

At this point it should be remembered that many school systems in the southern states and a few in the northern states have operated a seven-grade elementary school for a long time. Among the outstanding examples of this practice is Kansas City, Missouri, which organized its elementary schools on the seven-year basis in 1867. Several attempts have been made to compare the effectiveness of the seven-grade school with the eight-grade units.³¹ In addition to the Report of the Commission on Length of Elementary Education already referred to, Shouse has produced evidence to show that the graduates of the seven-grade schools in Kansas City saved on the average

²⁸ C. H. Judd, chairman, "Report of the Commission on Length of Elementary Education," *Supplementary Educational Monographs*, No. 34 (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1927), p. 11.

²⁹ V. E. Kilpatrick, *Departmental Teaching in Elementary Schools* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1908), p. 5.

³⁰ "Trends in City-School Organization, 1938 to 1948," *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 27, No. 1 (February, 1949).

³¹ For a complete summary of these studies, see "School Organization," *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 1, No. 3 (June, 1931), pp. 177-183.

0.83 of a year without any sacrifice in efficiency as compared to the graduates of eight-grade schools, and that seven-grade graduates ranked on a par with eight-grade graduates on standardized tests and marks in high school and college.³² Mayfield, who compared the progress in the University of Chicago High School of 478 pupils who had graduated from the seven-grade University Elementary School and of 711 pupils who had graduated from the regular eight-grade elementary schools, found that the seven-grade graduates had a slight advantage in home background, were on a par with the eight-grade graduates in intelligence quotients, graduated younger, and received a slightly higher percentage of superior marks, and that a larger percentage of them completed high school.³³ The cumulative evidence of these and other studies seems to indicate that the graduates of seven-grade elementary schools suffer no marked disadvantages in academic achievements and in subsequent educational work.

Such data as have been gathered suggest the conclusion that the movement for the reorganization of the upper elementary grades and their inclusion in the program of secondary education has received general acceptance in the United States. One may expect that, as local conditions permit, a rapidly increasing number of elementary schools will conclude with the sixth grade. The emerging pattern which seems within reach in the decade of the 1950's is a seven-year elementary school for children aged 5 to 12. At some distant point in the future the common school may again include four-year-olds or even three-year-olds.

THE ORGANIZATION FOR INSTRUCTION

"Organization for instruction" means the plan whereby teachers, the curriculum, and classes are brought together so that the instructional program may move forward. The dame schools were essentially a one-teacher one-room one-group type of school somewhat comparable to but not identical with present-day one-teacher one-room rural school. The teacher in a dame school taught a group of children ranging in age from four to seven (plus some older girls), each child or small sub-group progressing at its own rate through the meager textbooks available at that time. The children were not graded into classes as in today's graded elementary schools.

When the monotorial system prevailed in the reading and writing school: the organization was still basically a one-teacher school, but the large number of pupils required the help of monitors and later assistant teachers. As the number of small recitation rooms flanking the main room of a Lancas-

³² J. L. Shouse, *A Study of the 7-4-2 Plan of Organization in Kansas City, Missouri*, unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1928.

³³ J. C. Mayfield, *A Comparative Study of the Two Groups of Pupils in the University of Chicago*, unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1928.

trian type school were increased and the assistant teachers retained each group of pupils in the recitation rooms for longer periods of the day, the setting had been created that led J. D. Philbrick to take the next step in bringing the graded plan into full fruition in the Quincy Grammar School of Boston in 1848. The first official graded school in this country was thus a single-teacher-per-grade or a single-teacher-per-class organization for instruction.

The movement toward graded schools developed slowly at first, but by 1860 every town and city of any consequence, as well as many populous rural communities, had its own unified system of schools organized on a graded basis with a defined course of study embracing definite time limits. The graded school lent itself admirably to increasing perfection in organization and standardization. By 1870 the system had swung from no system to nothing but system.³⁴ There was thus a growing conviction that there were serious defects either in the graded system itself or in the method of its administration. This conviction was strongest where the schools had reached the highest degree of system and uniformity.³⁵ By 1870 methods which it was hoped would correct the most pronounced weakness of the formalized graded school made their appearance.

The major difficulties recognized in the graded system were the large number of pupils eliminated in the upper grades, overcrowding in the lower grades, high percentage of failure and nonpromotion, and the nonpromotion of bright pupils. The chief efforts at remediation between 1870 and 1885 were variations in the length of promotion periods and improvement of the examination procedures. Surveys by Boykin,³⁶ White,³⁷ and Prince³⁸ inquired about promotion practices and superintendents' opinions about rigid annual promotions, semiannual promotions, quarterly promotions, and examination methods. It was in this setting of dissatisfaction with the graded system that the St. Louis, Missouri, schools, which had adopted the graded plan in 1857, changed to a quarterly (10-week intervals) promotion plan when a new course of study was inaugurated in 1862.

Although effort at reorganization of the graded system, even up to 1898, focused largely upon revision of promotional periods and examination methods, several pioneers inaugurated modifications in curriculum and teaching methods. Preston W. Search is recognized as the first one in

³⁴ W. J. Shearer, *The Grading of Schools* (New York, H. P. Smith Publishing Co., 1899), p. 21.

³⁵ E. E. White (Supt. of Public Instruction, State of Ohio), "Several Problems in Graded School Management," *Addresses and Proceedings of the N.E.A.* (1874), p. 21.

³⁶ *Op. cit.*, pp. 1003-1004.

³⁷ E. E. White, *Promotions and Examinations in Graded Schools*, U. S. Bureau of Education, Circular of Information No. 7 (1891), pp. 16-21.

³⁸ J. T. Prince, "Some New England Plans and Conclusions Drawn from a Study of Grading and Promotion," *Addresses and Proceedings of the N.E.A.* (1898), pp. 423-432.

America to voice loud protests against the class lock-step methods of teaching and to urge complete individual progress for each pupil.³⁹ Search put his ideas into practice in Pueblo, Colorado, in 1888. The movement to individualize instruction led to the establishment of the Cambridge, Elizabeth, Portland, Batavia, North Denver, Santa Barbara Concentric, Burk's individual, Dalton, and Winnetka plans (Table 4). Each of these innovations found its adherents in other school systems. Surveys by Hartwell⁴⁰ in 1910 and Ayer⁴¹ in 1922 showed that the Pueblo plan had found its way into 203 school systems, the Cambridge plan into 78 systems, the Elizabeth plan into 270 systems, and so on.

TABLE 4: Variations from the Usual Type of Elementary-School Organization, 1862-1932 *

PLAN OR PRACTICE	PERSONS ASSOCIATED	
	WITH ITS ESTABLISHMENT	DATE OF ESTABLISHMENT
St. Louis	W. T. Harris	1862
Pueblo	P. W. Search	1888
Cambridge	Francis Cogswell	1893
Elizabeth, New Jersey	W. J. Shearer	1895
Portland, Oregon	Frank Rigler	1897
Batavia	John Kennedy	1898
North Denver	J. H. VanSickle	1898
Santa Barbara Concentric	Frederic Burk	1898
Platoon	W. A. Wirt	1900
Burk's Individual	Frederic Burk	1913
Dalton	Helen Parkhurst	1919
Winnetka	C. W. Washburne	1919
Detroit X-Y-Z grouping	C. S. Berry	1919
Cooperative Group	J. F. Hosic	1930

* For a complete historical account of these plans, see H. J. Otto, "Historical Sketches of Administration Innovations," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. XX (March, 1934), pp. 161-172.

Boykin's report in 1890 showed that ability grouping was then in vogue in several cities. Malden, Massachusetts, Owensboro, Kentucky, Cairo and Elgin, Illinois, and Sidney, Ohio, were among the cities that had developed various systems of ability grouping. Seattle, in 1891, had developed a rather complete system of ability grouping. By 1926 there were 145 of the 163 cities of 10,000 to 30,000 population that were dividing some or all of the pupils in the elementary grades into ability groups.⁴² Ungraded rooms for

³⁹ P. W. Search, "Individual Teaching and the Pueblo Plan," *Educational Review*, Vol. 7 (February, 1894), pp. 154-170.

⁴⁰ C. S. Hartwell, "The Grading and Promotion of Pupils," *Addresses and Proceedings of the N.E.A.* (1910), p. 296.

⁴¹ F. C. Ayer, "The Present Status of Promotional Plans in City School Systems," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 67 (April, 1923), pp. 37-39.

⁴² *Cities Reporting the Use of Homogeneous Grouping and the Winnetka Technique and the Dalton Plan*, U. S. Bureau of Education, City School Leaflet No. 22 (December, 1926).

slow learners or for pupils needing special help had been developed in a few school systems before 1900. By 1910 there were ungraded rooms in 275 school systems. In 1948, 43 per cent of 1598 city school systems were operating ungraded rooms.

Departmentalization is an arrangement whereby each instructor teaches only the one or two subjects in which he is a specialist. Either the teacher moves from room to room to teach the various classes or the pupils shift from room to room during the successive periods in the school day. Sometimes a combination of the two methods is used. The reading and writing schools which flourished in New England states during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were "departmental schools" since each had its own master, its own room and set of studies, and a corps of assistants. The pupils attended each department alternately, changing from one school to the other at the end of each day or half-day session, depending upon whether both schools were in the same building or in different parts of the town. As the unified elementary school developed in the Southern and Middle Atlantic states, and at a later date in the New England states, the departmental feature disappeared. When the Quincy Grammar School of Boston was reorganized into a graded school in 1848 the basic plan was one-teacher-per-class; each teacher had the same class all day and taught the pupils all the subjects then included in the curriculum. As graded schools spread throughout the country after 1850 the single-teacher-per-class plan was retained. Departmentalization thus disappeared from elementary-school practice between 1850 and 1900. None of the efforts between 1860 and 1900 to remove the evils of the rigid graded system reopened the issue of departmentalization. Apparently no one thought that departmentalization held any promise for relieving the problems urgent at that time.

It was the movement for the reorganization of the curriculum in the upper elementary grades between 1890 and 1910 which reintroduced the idea of departmental work. In New York City departmental teaching was begun in the upper elementary grades in 1900. The arrangement was similar to departmental work as we now know it in junior and senior high schools.⁴³ The plan appeared to show enough advantages to induce other school systems to try it. By 1913, 461 of the replies from 813 superintendents in cities with populations of 5000 and over indicated the existence of departmental teaching.⁴⁴ No doubt the same ideas which led to the introduction of departmental teaching in the upper elementary grades were also important factors in bringing about the first separately organized junior high schools in 1909 and 1911.

⁴³ Van Evrie Kilpatrick, *Departmental Teaching in Elementary Schools* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1908).

⁴⁴ "Departmental Teaching in the Grades," *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year Ended June, 1913*, Vol. I (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1913), pp. 139-144.

Concurrent with the development of departmental teaching in the upper elementary grades was the development of the platoon school which involved all the elementary grades. The platoon school program for each group of children is arranged in such a way that one-half of each morning and afternoon session is devoted to what are called the fundamentals (reading, writing, spelling, language, arithmetic, history, and geography) while half of each half-day session is allocated to special subjects and activities (art, music, physical education, auditorium, library, science, and home and manual arts).⁴⁵ Specialization in teaching is used extensively. Even the "home-room" teacher who has the pupils for all the fundamentals is expected to be a specialist in those areas. By rotating classes and having some of the teachers in the special areas like auditorium and physical education take two and three sections at a time an economy in teachers and plant facilities is achieved.

The platoon school was originated in Bluffton, Indiana, in 1900 by William A. Wirt, but it did not become well known until Wirt expanded the idea a few years later when he became superintendent of schools in Gary, Indiana. In 1929 there were 1068 platoon schools in 202 cities in 41 states.⁴⁶ In 1948 the platoon plan was in operation in only 8 per cent of 1598 city school systems in this country.

Undoubtedly the development of departmental teaching in the upper elementary grades and the spread of the platoon school had much to do with the expansion of departmental work in all elementary schools between 1900 and the decade of the 1930's. A 1925 survey which included 410 school systems in cities of 2500 to 25,000 in 31 states showed that 67 per cent of the eight-year elementary schools and 43 per cent of six-year schools used departmental work in some degree, some of the school programs being completely departmentalized.⁴⁷ Reports from 532 elementary schools in 1944, representing all but two of the states, revealed that 66 per cent of these schools used departmental instruction in some degree.⁴⁸ But the widespread use of specialization in teaching does not mean universal satisfaction with it. Prince, in a questionnaire study involving 154 cities in 1941, found that the trend was to eliminate or to reduce the degree of departmentalization in the first six grades. Fifty-four of the cities had discontinued the practice in these grades between 1917 and 1940.⁴⁹ In 1948, 51 per cent of 1598 city school systems reported the use of departmentalization. These 1598 school sys-

⁴⁵ Charles L. Spain, *The Platoon School* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1924), p. 48.

⁴⁶ R. D. Case, *The Platoon School In America* (Stanford, Cal., Stanford University Press, 1931), p. 26.

⁴⁷ Henry J. Otto, *Current Practices in the Organization of Elementary Schools*, Northwestern University Contributions to Education, No. 5 (1932).

⁴⁸ Henry J. Otto, *Organizational and Administrative Practices in Elementary Schools in the United States* (Austin, University of Texas Press, 1945).

⁴⁹ T. C. Prince, "Trends in Types of Elementary School Organization," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 106 (June, 1943), pp. 37-38.

tems represented a 42 per cent sampling of the 3796 city school systems in existence at that time.⁵⁰ The significant fact to note here is that 35 per cent of those who reported the use of departmentalization said it was "on the way out" in their school systems.

The preceding discussion makes clear that departmentalization in elementary schools has had its ups and downs. At present it seems to be experiencing a downward trend. What are the present issues involved? What place, if any, does it have in present elementary-school programs? These and related issues will be treated in a later chapter.

INDIVIDUALIZATION IN EDUCATION

Prior to the advent of the monotorial plan (1806) and its use in the departmental reading and writing schools, instruction in elementary schools was informal and in the main individual pupils or small groups progressed at their own rates. Teaching, learning, and pupil progress were individualized to a marked degree. The monotorial plan introduced a degree of systematized group instruction. Each monitor had a row of 9 or 10 scholars to instruct and to hear their lessons, but the number of such groups was so large and their differences in advancement so small that pupils could be shifted from one group to another with relative ease. The monotorial system had many evils, but the lack of attention to individual student needs was not its worst fault.

It was not until the graded plan of organization spread after 1850 that it became apparent that the individual pupil had been lost in the zeal for perfection in organization and administration. The graded school, plus the increasing hordes of children to be taught and the shortage of teachers, buildings, and funds for teaching them, brought to the forefront the need for serving individuals more adequately than the mass methods of group instruction were doing. Most of the innovations in elementary-school organization shown in Table 4 were efforts to increase individualization of instruction. Two-track and three-track courses of study, unit progress plans such as Burk's, Winnetka, and Dalton, special-help teachers, and ungraded rooms were tried. Semiannual and quarterly promotions were introduced and improvements were sought in examination and promotion practices. Ability grouping, which began in the 1880's, reached a peak of usage in the 1930's. It, too, has been found to have many limitations but in 1948, 53 per cent of the 1598 school systems previously mentioned were still using it.

Sufficient individualization in education to enable all pupils to make progress in accordance with their abilities is still a big problem in elementary education. With enrollments again on the upswing the problem will become even more acute in the future. What can be done about it will be discussed in a later chapter. The movement for special classes for exceptional children

⁵⁰ "Trends in City-School Organization, 1938 to 1948," *op. cit.*

really emerged as a part of the general trend seeking greater individualization in education. The historical sketch of the education of exceptional children is given below.

SERVING ATYPICAL CHILDREN

Although small beginnings were made prior to 1900, public school provisions for educable children with major deviations from the norm is a twentieth-century development. Children with major hearing or vision loss, lowered vitality, crippling conditions, emotional or social maladjustment, or extreme deviation in mental ability have always been a part of the school-age population but it was not until the 1890's that serious thought was given to the contribution which educational procedures appropriate to their needs could do for them. The first public school class for exceptional children was established in Boston in 1869. It was a special class for deaf children. The idea of special classes for deaf children did not spread very rapidly because only large cities would have enough cases to justify the special arrangements. It was not long, however, before the hard of hearing as well as the deaf were included and by 1900, 41 school systems reported classes for deaf and hard of hearing. In 1948, 288 cities in 40 states maintained such classes (Table 5).

Feeble-minded or mentally subnormal children were the next group to receive special attention. Providence, Rhode Island, established the first public school class for mentally limited children in 1896.⁵¹ Special classes for crippled children were established in Chicago in 1899, in Cleveland in 1901, and in Philadelphia and Baltimore in 1913. Special classes for pupils with vision deficiencies may be divided into two types, sight-saving classes and classes for the blind. The small number of blind pupils in the school population of any community has placed the education of these pupils largely in state institutions. Nevertheless, public school classes for the blind have been established in some of the larger cities. The first class for the blind was started in Chicago in 1900. Sight-saving classes have had a more rapid development than classes for the blind. From two sight-saving classes started in Boston in 1913 the number had grown to 292 classes in 80 cities in 19 states by 1928. In more recent years there has been a tendency to merge the work with the blind and partially sighted so that now the two are reported together (Table 5).

Open-air (sometimes called open-window) classes were started primarily for the prevention and cure of tuberculosis. The history of open-air classes began in 1904 when the first school was established in Charlottenburg, Germany. The movement soon spread to America and similar classes were organized in Providence and Boston in 1908; in Chicago and Rochester, New

⁵¹ J. E. W. Wallin, *The Education of Handicapped Children* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924), p. 37.

York, in 1909; and in New York City and Hartford, Connecticut, in 1910. The apparent success of this work opened up new possibilities in this field so that classes which were established later provided largely for anemic and undernourished pupils rather than the tubercular. As research in medicine progressed the open-window idea fell into disfavor so that at present open-air classes as such have disappeared and special provisions for delicate children have developed.

TABLE 5: Special Classes and Schools for Atypical Pupils in U. S. City School Systems in 1948 *

TYPE OF SPECIAL CLASS OR SCHOOL FOR	NUMBER OF		
	<i>States Reporting</i>	<i>Cities Reporting</i>	<i>Pupils Reported</i>
1. Blind and partially seeing	34	265	8,276
2. Deaf and hard of hearing	40	288	14,082
3. Speech-defective	40	455	182,344
4. Crippled	48	960	30,547
5. Delicate	43	550	19,189
6. Epileptic	21	65	390
7. Mentally deficient	47	730	87,179
8. Socially maladjusted	25	90	15,340
9. Mentally gifted	11	15	20,712

* Adapted from Elise H. Martens, "Statistics of Special Schools and Classes for Exceptional Children," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1946-48* (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1950), Ch. 5, p. 10.

Among the more recent developments in specialized educational services for atypical children are special classes for children with speech defects, the epileptic, the socially maladjusted, and the mentally gifted. Although 54 cities reported classes for the gifted in 1911, Van Sickle ventured the caution that in many places the term had been given a very liberal interpretation.⁵² The extent of all types of public school provisions for atypical children in 1948 is shown in Table 5. What are the present major administrative and organizational problems in the area of special education? How may children in the smaller communities and rural areas be reached?

HEALTH PROGRAMS AND SOCIAL SERVICES

The paramount importance of health in the lives of individuals and in the welfare of a people has been recognized for ages, but it was not until the twentieth century that health has gained its rightful emphasis in education. The beginning in school health work was made in Boston in 1894 following a series of epidemics among school children. Chicago began health work

⁵² J. H. Van Sickle and others, *Provision for Exceptional Children in Public Schools*, U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, No. 14 (1911), p. 34.

in the schools in 1895, New York City in 1897, and Philadelphia in 1898.⁵³ Most of the progress which has been made in the field of school health work has come since 1900, and more particularly since 1915.⁵⁴ Invariably the emphasis upon health has resulted largely from deficiencies discovered during times of war. Even physical education was late in developing. In 1900 only 83 of the 273 leading cities had appointed directors of physical education. Although some states had physical-education legislation prior to World War I, most of the laws relating to physical education have been placed upon the statutes since 1915.⁵⁵ In 1904 the average time devoted to health instruction in Grades 1 to 6, inclusive, was 64 minutes per week; by 1926 this time allotment had increased to 245 minutes per week.⁵⁶

From meager beginnings during the first two decades of the present century school health programs have expanded to include an impressive array of services and activities. A preliminary list would include (1) daily observation by teachers, (2) control of communicable disease, (3) periodic medical and dental examinations, (4) correction of defects, (5) vision and hearing testing, (6) safety as concerns fire, traffic, play, buildings, and grounds, (7) physical education, (8) first aid, (9) school lunch, (10) health instruction, (11) hygienic school schedule, (12) school sanitation, (13) habit training, (14) mental hygiene, (15) school nursing, medical, dental, and psychiatric service, (16) special classes, (17) school records, and (18) community coordination. Effective operation of these many phases of school health work requires careful planning, organization, and management. Present problems in this regard are discussed in a later chapter.

A good school health program is a valuable tool in identifying children who are in need of food, clothing, medical care, minor surgical operations, dental care, eye-glasses, and other services which minister directly to the physical wants of children. Every school population contains a few children who cannot receive these personal services through the usual private channels. The question therefore arises whether the schools should engage in direct services to children in these areas of personal need. The issue strikes deeply into several long-established policies. It has been recognized for a long time that the school cannot deal effectively with the intellectual aspects of the curriculum when the physical bodies of children are not in a healthy, vigorous state. But, should the school extend its staff and budgets so as to add the welfare function to its educational function? Or, should the task of ministering to children's physical needs be left to non-

⁵³ T. D. Wood and H. G. Rowell, *Health Supervision and Medical Inspection of Schools* (Philadelphia, W. B. Saunders Co., 1927), p. 18.

⁵⁴ J. B. Nash, *The Administration of Physical Education* (New York, A. S. Barnes Co., 1931), p. 40.

⁵⁵ T. A. Storey and W. S. Small, *Recent State Legislation for Physical Education*, U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, No. 40 (1918).

⁵⁶ C. H. Mann, *How Schools Use Their Time* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928), p. 122.

school health services and, if maintained at all, how should school health services be related to the non-school agencies?

During the depression years of the early 1930's the schools were swept into rendering increasing amounts of welfare services. One study showed that during 1931-1932 the schools in 187 cities with populations of 25,000 to 1,000,000 had increased their welfare services appreciably. Dental corrections had increased an average of 36.1 per cent; eye-glasses furnished free had increased 26.7 per cent; and free removal of tonsils and adenoids had increased 13.3 per cent.⁵⁷ The need for social services for children from public or charitable funds fluctuates with the times. Basic policies on these matters are still transitional and controversial.

LIBRARY SERVICE

School library work in this country is really a twentieth-century development. In elementary schools the major development has come since 1930. The forerunners of this movement are diversified and interesting. Benjamin Franklin is credited with founding the first subscription library in 1731. In 1812 the governor of New York spoke of "the importance of a judicious selection of books for use in the schools" in his annual message to the New York legislature. It was not until 1838, however, that New York state set the example which other states began to follow; the New York legislature made the first state appropriation for school libraries. By the time the American Library Association was organized in 1876, 19 states had some kind of law pertaining to school libraries. Worcester, Massachusetts, pioneered in initiating public library service to the schools in 1879. Similar services from the public library began in Cleveland, Ohio, in 1884; in Detroit, Michigan, in 1887; and in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, in 1888.⁵⁸ These developments, related to library service in secondary schools, were the forerunners which prepared the field for library service in elementary schools.

Prior to 1896 the N.E.A. gave scant attention to the library movement. There had been one or two talks at conventions on the use of libraries in schools, but the problems of the field had been left to others. At the instigation of Melvil Dewey the N.E.A. created a Library Department in 1896 and subsequent activity produced a report in 1899 on the Relations of Public Libraries to Public Schools. By 1920 some interest had been generated in favor of library service for elementary schools. The Third Yearbook (1924) of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A. contained two articles on elementary-school libraries. By the time the Fourth Year-

⁵⁷ C. A. Strange, *A Survey of Welfare Work in the Public Schools of Selected Cities*, unpublished Master's thesis, Northwestern University, 1933.

⁵⁸ These historical items were adapted from: Stella McClenahan, *Growth of School Libraries in America*, unpublished Master's thesis, Colorado State Teachers College, 1932; Grace Hazel Floyd, *Library Service in Public Elementary Schools of Texas*, unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Texas, 1947.

book (1925) appeared a Joint Committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals and the School Librarians Section of the American Library Association was ready to have its report on standards for elementary-school libraries included.⁵⁰ These standards became known as the "Certain Standards" because the chairman of each of the joint committees was Mr. C. C. Certain. It was not until 1933 that the Department of Elementary School Principals gave full-dress attention to elementary-school libraries by devoting its Twelfth Yearbook entirely to this subject.⁶⁰ Since then the Department has shown continued interest in promoting library service in elementary schools by frequent articles in its Bulletin and then another full yearbook in 1951.⁶¹

That library service in elementary schools did not develop until well into the present century is shown by several types of data. In 1911 the California legislature enacted a law providing for county library service to rural schools. By 1936 California had 46 county libraries serving rural schools; these 46 units represented 20 per cent of all the county libraries in the United States at that time.⁶² Martin found that in Kentucky in 1932 about 90 per cent of the elementary schools in city-school systems had classroom libraries only; 4.3 per cent had a centralized library with a librarian in charge.⁶³ Brown's study, which included 8772 elementary schools in 631 cities with 10,000 or over population, revealed that in 1939, 16 per cent of these schools had centralized libraries; 65 per cent had classroom libraries only; and 19 per cent had a combination of the two arrangements.⁶⁴

Case histories are more vivid than state-wide or nation-wide statistics. MacBean has provided a record of elementary-school library development in Chicago.⁶⁵ In 1935 there was little that remotely resembled libraries in the 333 elementary schools. There were rooms lined with antiquated multi-drawer and glass-door cabinets in the older buildings and built-in shelving in a room labeled "Library" in the newer ones. In some instances there were tables and chairs but no other furniture or equipment. The book collections consisted of rows and rows of old textbooks, occasional copies of children's classics, and only rarely copies of children's books published within the last

⁵⁰ For the complete report of this Joint Committee, see Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A., Fourth Yearbook (Washington, 1925), pp. 326-353.

⁶⁰ *Elementary School Libraries*, Twelfth Yearbook (Washington, Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A., 1933).

⁶¹ *Elementary School Libraries Today*, Thirtieth Yearbook (Washington, Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A., 1951).

⁶² Helen Heffernan, *Rural School Libraries*.

⁶³ Lora Pearl Martin, *The Present Status of the Elementary School Library in Representative City Schools of Kentucky*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Kentucky, 1932.

⁶⁴ Howard W. Brown, *A Study of Methods and Practices in Supplying Library Services to Public Elementary Schools in the United States*, unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, 1941.

⁶⁵ Dilla W. MacBean, "The Chicago Story," *Elementary School Libraries Today*, op. cit., pp. 240-247.

decade. Recommendations were made regarding the equipment necessary to transform an empty classroom into a library and in 1937, and for several years thereafter, the board of education appropriated \$50,000 per year for that purpose. In the early stages the annual appropriation for library books was nine cents per pupil, but within five years that amount was changed to 50 cents per pupil.

Since 1936 the Chicago Teachers College has helped the library movement in Chicago by offering courses in library science. Between 1937 and 1939 the Chicago public library placed collections of 750 books in each of 30 schools. Later these loan collections were extended. In 1945 a committee prepared two reports entitled *Standards for Housing and Equipping the School Library* and *Professional Standards of the School Librarian in the Chicago Elementary Schools*. Except for minor changes, these standards prevail today. Schools with less than 500 pupils have a half-time librarian who divides her time between two schools. Schools with more than 500 pupils have a full-time librarian. Plans have been drawn for a specially designed library room to be included in each new elementary school. As of 1951, 319 of the 335 elementary schools in Chicago had centralized libraries. Overcrowded conditions was the only reason centralized libraries were not found in the other schools. Trained librarians had been assigned to 257 schools, 161 on a full-time and 96 on a half-time basis. The other 62 schools had teacher-librarians who had some training in library work.

McJenkin's description of the development of library service in the elementary schools of Fulton County, Georgia, reflects the close relationship between changes in curriculum and methods and the growing interest in library service.⁶⁶ On a hot September day in 1935, 45 teachers from the elementary schools of Fulton County began to organize and process library book collections for their respective schools. They worked for five days under the supervision of two high-school librarians who later gave continuing assistance to the elementary-school project. In 1937 an additional librarian was employed for the high school to permit the former librarians to give more time to the elementary schools and in 1939 one of the high-school librarians was relieved officially for one-half time to work with the elementary schools. In 1942 this librarian became full-time director of library services in the elementary schools. For the school year 1948-1949 six full-time librarians were employed to work with 14 schools. This number was increased by six more in 1949-1950 and by six more in 1950-1951, so that in the latter year 39 schools were being served.

The brief historical items which have been presented could be multiplied many times if the experience of other states or school systems were added. Additional historical data would be similar to those already given and would merely strengthen the general conclusion that the *idea* of library service in

⁶⁶ Virginia McJenkin, "Library Growth in Fulton County," *Elementary School Libraries Today*, *op. cit.*, pp. 254-258.

elementary schools dates back about 60 years, but that *recognition of need* for it did not become widespread until during the 1920's, except in the platoon schools established after 1900. The 1930's marked a generous diffusion of the need among all categories of elementary-school workers, but limited funds of the depression years left many dreams unrealized. It was really not until the 1940's that genuine progress was made in bringing respectable scope and quality of library service to large numbers of elementary schools. The decade of the 1950's faces the challenge of making generous library service a reality in all schools, urban and rural; of studying the ways in which library service in elementary schools can contribute best to children's education; and of improving the resources, services, and curricular relationships of libraries in elementary schools.

TRANSITION IN OTHER AREAS

The brief historical sketches which have been given of selected phases of elementary-school organization and administration should not be looked upon as a comprehensive treatment of the whole field. The elements of organization for which the "transitional pictures" were given were selected because they seemed to be particularly useful in making vivid and impressive the fact that elementary education in this country had grown tremendously in the number of pupils and teachers involved, the number and types of facilities used, and in the geographical areas served; that elementary education had changed impressively in the nature and scope of its offering, in physical facilities of school plants, in internal organization of the schools, and in the variety of services rendered to an increasingly complex pupil population.

Other areas in which equally dramatic changes have occurred are the number and types of school districts, health and welfare services, qualifications of teachers, principals, and supervisors, concepts and procedures in school discipline, grouping and progress of pupils, reporting to parents, the evaluation movement, and the growing volume of research and literature in elementary education. All of these, plus other items that could be listed, are integral aspects of the elementary school and exert their respective influences in the composite picture of school organization and administration.

THE PRESENT AND THE FUTURE CHALLENGE EACH OTHER

The story of the past informs us of when and how the problems which confront us began. It portrays the conditions under which and the devious routes whereby the evolutionary changes took place. It gives us insight and appreciation regarding the problems faced and the solutions achieved by our predecessors. It helps to explain why conditions today are no better than

they are and by so doing instills in us a degree of tolerance for the shortcomings in elementary education which beset us today. Although such knowledge, insight, appreciation, and tolerance are desirable, they must not be permitted to lull us into complacency or a defeatist attitude.

Elementary schools have been changing throughout the history of this country. They are continuing to change. Huffman found 2430 articles and news items describing changes in various aspects of elementary-school organization between 1924 and 1944 in *The Nation's Schools*, *The School Executive*, *The American School Board Journal*, and *The Elementary School Journal*.⁶⁷ These news items had been reported by city schools or city school systems from 47 states. The items included changes in curricula, administration of teacher personnel, general aspects of elementary-school organization, pupil progress, pupil classification, health programs, pupil adjustment services, and school-community relations. A subsequent study of somewhat narrower scope by Sweet revealed 202 such news items in the same four journals between January 1, 1945, and January 1, 1950.⁶⁸ These 202 news items reporting changes in aspects of elementary-school organization came from city schools in 38 states. Although both of these studies testify to the changing character of elementary-school practices they cannot be taken to represent all that has taken place. No doubt thousands of changed practices during this 25-year period were never written up or, if described, appeared only in local newspapers. The literature in elementary education contains many books and articles dealing with various theories and general practices, but only a few are concerned with changed practices in specific schools or school systems. The local practitioner is usually so busy making the change that he does not find time to inform others about it. Our professional literature thus suffers from lack of the practical details involved in bringing about school improvements.

In any field of endeavor ideals, ideas, and hypotheses must precede experimentation and the projection of ways of putting desired objectives into practice. It is only logical and natural that practice should lag behind theory. The problem is to put new knowledge to work as rapidly as possible and to keep the lag between theory and practice as small as possible. Our present knowledge about children, how they learn, their educational needs, the goals which present-day elementary education should seek, and the services and facilities essential for achieving those goals is far ahead of present practice in the great majority of elementary schools. Our knowledge and our ideals about good schools for children is today's challenge to the future. Our conviction of the importance of good schools for all children challenges the schools of today to proceed as rapidly as possible in changing from what

⁶⁷ Margaret P. Huffman, *Elementary School Organizational and Administrative Changes, 1924-1944*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1945.

⁶⁸ Forest Sweet, *Changes in the Internal Organizational and Administrative Practices in the Elementary School, 1945 to 1950*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1950.

is to what ought to be in order that the ideal of today may become a reality of tomorrow. The fact that the schools of yesteryear made many changes and improved consistently, even if not in an unbroken continuum, gives us of today the courage that comes from the success of our predecessors. The present and the future thus challenge each other to make the best that we know today the heritage of all children at an early date. It is to the attainment of this objective that the remaining chapters of this book are dedicated.

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2

The Role of the Elementary School

THE ADMINISTRATOR or teacher who wishes to examine present administrative and organizational practices in elementary schools and to give leadership to the reconstruction and improvement of these practices needs to fortify himself with soul-searching answers to a number of basic questions. How do we in this country feel about our children and what are our sober heartfelt desires for our children? What are the ideals that we the people have for our children and their education and continued well-being? Who are the children being served by elementary schools? What are the needs and characteristics of these children? How must schooling be organized and carried forward in order that it may most effectively relate itself to the needs and characteristics of growing children? What is the setting within which the school must undertake its task? What should the elementary school strive to do for children? How may the program of the elementary school be related to children's subsequent school experiences? By what guideposts may we appraise and revise the facilities and the ways whereby elementary schools serve children?

No one person or group can be expected to produce answers to the preceding questions which would be acceptable in their entirety to all other individuals or groups. Certainly the author makes no pretense of knowing *the* answers. The discussion which follows is intended to provide ideas and information which may aid the reader in arriving at his own answers to these questions.

OUR DESIRES FOR OUR CHILDREN

If you wish to discover the true measure of a man ask him how he feels about his children and what his hopes and desires are for them. If he gives himself time to be very thoughtful his answer will reveal his genuine inner philosophy of life and his hopes regarding the universe. He will tell you about his desires for his children's health, general physical well-being, freedom from want, fear, and exploitation, the full development of all their talents and potentialities, their attainment of a wholesome social and emotional maturity and personality integration so they may become self-sustain-

ing resourceful individuals in a world at peace, a world in which the social, economic, political, and governmental forces and agencies may be so ordered that the fullness of life may be earned and enjoyed. The details of such a reply might be difficult to state on short order but the items might be very similar to those which have been produced by national groups. The Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth prepared such a statement. It reads as follows:

Pledge to Children. To you, our children, who hold within you our most cherished hopes, we the members of the Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth, relying on your full response, make this pledge:

1. From your earliest infancy we give you our love, so that you may grow with trust in yourself and in others.
2. We will recognize your worth as a person and we will help you to strengthen your sense of belonging.
3. We will respect your right to be yourself and at the same time help you to understand the rights of others, so that you may experience cooperative living.
4. We will help you to develop initiative and imagination, so that you may have the opportunity freely to create.
5. We will encourage your curiosity and your pride in workmanship, so that you may have the satisfaction that comes from achievement.
6. We will provide the conditions for wholesome play that will add to your learning, to your social experience, and to your happiness.
7. We will illustrate by precept and example the value of integrity and the importance of moral courage.
8. We will encourage you always to seek the truth.
9. We will provide you with all opportunities possible to develop your own faith in God.
10. We will open the way for you to enjoy the arts and to use them for deepening your understanding of life.
11. We will work to rid ourselves of prejudices and discrimination, so that together we may achieve a truly democratic society.
12. We will work to lift the standard of living and to improve our economic practices, so that you may have the material basis for a full life.
13. We will provide you with rewarding educational opportunities, so that you may develop your talents and contribute to a better world.
14. We will protect you against exploitation and undue hazards and help you grow in health and strength.
15. We will work to conserve and improve family life and, as needed, to provide foster care according to your inherent rights.
16. We will intensify our search for new knowledge in order to guide you more effectively as you develop your potentialities.
17. As you grow from child to youth to adult, establishing a family life of your own and accepting larger social responsibilities, we will work with you to improve conditions for all children and youth.

Aware that these promises to you cannot be fully met in a world at war, we

ask you to join us in a firm dedication to the building of a world society based on freedom, justice and mutual respect.

So may you grow in joy, in faith in God and in man, and in those qualities of vision and of the spirit that will sustain us all and give us new hope for the future.¹

The specific educational goals have been identified by two other national bodies. The 1930 White House Conference on Child Health and Protection prepared *The Children's Charter* which contained the following items relating to education:

1. *For every child* spiritual and moral training to help him stand firm under the pressure of life.
2. *For every child* understanding and the guarding of his personality as his most precious right.
3. *For every child* health protection from birth, through adolescence, including periodical health examinations and, where needed, care of specialists and hospital treatment; regular dental examination and care of the teeth; protective and preventive measures against communicable diseases; the insuring of pure food, pure milk, and pure water.
4. *For every child* from birth through adolescence, promotion of health, including health instruction and a health program, wholesome physical and mental recreation, with teachers and leaders adequately trained.
5. *For every child* a school which is safe from hazards, sanitary, properly equipped, lighted and ventilated. For younger children nursery schools and kindergartens to supplement home care.
6. *For every child* a community which recognizes and plans for his needs, protects him against physical dangers, moral hazards, and disease; provides him with safe and wholesome places for play and recreation; and makes provision for his cultural and social needs.
7. *For every child* an education which, through the discovery and development of his individual abilities, prepares him for life; and through training and vocational guidance prepares him for a living which will yield him the maximum of satisfaction.
8. *For every child* such teaching and training as will prepare him for successful parenthood, homemaking, and the rights of citizenship; and, for parents, supplementary training to fit them to deal wisely with the problems of parenthood.
9. *For every child* education for safety and protection against accidents to which modern conditions subject him—those to which he is directly exposed and those which, through loss or maiming of his parents, affect him directly.
10. *For every child* who is blind, deaf, crippled, or otherwise physically handicapped, and for the child who is mentally handicapped, such measures as will early discover and diagnose his handicap, provide care and treatment, and so train him that he may become an asset to society

¹ *Platform Recommendations and Pledge to Children* (Washington, Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth, Inc., 1950), pp. iii-iv.

rather than a liability. Expenses of these services should be borne publicly where they cannot be privately met.

11. *For every child* who is in conflict with society the right to be dealt with intelligently as society's charge, not society's outcast; with the home, the school, the church, the court, and the institution when needed, shaped to return him whenever possible to the normal stream of life.
12. *For every child* protection against labor that stunts growth, either physical or mental, that limits education, that deprives children of the right of comradeship of play, and of joy.

FOR EVERY CHILD THESE RIGHTS, regardless of Race, or Color, or Situation wherever he may live under the protection of the American flag.

In October, 1944, the first White House Conference on Rural Education was held. This Conference produced *A Charter of Education for Rural Children* which lifts our vision regarding education. Although addressed to rural children, the items set goals for the education of all children. The statement is reproduced in its entirety.

1. *Every rural child has the right to a satisfactory, modern elementary education.*—This education should be such as to guarantee the child an opportunity to develop and maintain a healthy body and a balanced personality, to acquire the skills needed as tools of learning, to get a good start in understanding and appreciating the natural and social world, to participate happily and helpfully in home and community life, to work and play with others, and to enjoy and use music, art, literature, and handicrafts.
2. *Every rural child has the right to a satisfactory, modern secondary education.*—This education should assure the youth continued progress in his general, physical, social, civic, and cultural development begun in the elementary school, and provide initial training for farming or other occupations and an open door to college and the professions.
3. *Every rural child has the right to an educational program that bridges the gap between home and school, and between school and adult life.*—This program requires, on the one hand, cooperation with parents for the home education of children too young for school and for the joint educational guidance by home and school of all other children; and, on the other hand, the cooperative development of cultural and vocational adult education suited to the needs and desires of the people of the community.
4. *Every rural child has the right through his school to health services, educational and vocational guidance, library facilities, recreational activities, and where needed, school lunches and pupil transportation facilities at public expense.*—Such special services, because they require the employment of specially qualified personnel, can be supplied most easily through enlarged units of school administration and the cooperation of several small schools.
5. *Every rural child has the right to teachers, supervisors, and administrators who know rural life and who are educated to deal effectively with the problems peculiar to rural schools.*—Persons so educated should hold

State certificates that set forth their special qualifications, should be paid adequate salaries, and should be protected by law and fair practices in security of their positions as a reward for good and faithful services. The accomplishment of these objectives is the responsibility of local leadership, State departments of education, the teacher-educational institutions, and national leaders in rural education.

6. *Every rural child has the right to educational service and guidance during the entire year and full-time attendance in a school that is open for not less than 9 months in each year for at least 12 years.*—The educational development of children during vacation time is also a responsibility of the community school. In many communities the period of schooling has already become 14 years and should become such in all communities as rapidly as possible.
7. *Every rural child has the right to attend school in a sanitary modern building.*—The building should be attractive, clean, sanitary, safe, conducive to good health, equipped with materials and apparatus essential to the best teaching, planned as a community center, and surrounded by ample space for playgrounds, gardens, landscaping, and beautification.
8. *Every rural child has the right through the school to participate in community life and culture.*—For effective service the school plant must be planned and recognized as a center of community activity; the closest possible interrelationships should be maintained between the school and other community agencies; and children and youth should be recognized as active participants in community affairs.
9. *Every rural child has the right to a local school system sufficiently strong to provide all the services for a modern education.*—Obtaining such a school system depends upon organizing amply large units of school administration. Such units do not necessarily result in large schools. Large schools can usually provide broad educational opportunities more economically, but with special efforts small schools can well serve rural children and communities.
10. *Every rural child has the right to have the tax resources of his community, State, and Nation used to guarantee him an American standard of educational opportunity.*—This right must include equality of opportunity for minority and low economy groups. Since many rural youths become urban producers and consumers, it is necessary for the development of the democratic way of life that the wealth and productivity of the entire Nation should aid in the support of the right of every child to a good education.

THESE ARE THE RIGHTS of the Rural Child because they are the Rights of Every Child regardless of Race, or Color, or Situation, wherever he may live under the United States Flag.

The three preceding statements produced by national bodies are particularly significant because the membership of these White House Conferences was drawn from leading citizens in all walks of life in all parts of the country. Each Conference group contained several thousand persons who were outstandingly capable leaders and thinkers in their respective fields. Although some educators participated in each conference, the large majority

of each group consisted of noneducators. It may thus be said that these statements represent the "desires for our children" of large bodies of thinking citizens. The statements may be taken as the citizens' challenge to education.

THE CHILDREN SERVED BY ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Clarification of one's focus upon the role of the elementary school necessitates a delineation of the children served by such schools. Compulsory school attendance laws provide one angle from which to examine the problem. Compulsory attendance at school is not a recent concept. In England its beginnings have been traced to the year 1405.² In the United States the idea of compulsory education was expressed in the Massachusetts law of 1642.³ It was not until after 1860, however, that modern compulsory education laws appeared in the various states (Table 6).

TABLE 6: Years in Which Modern Compulsory Education Laws Were Adopted in the Forty-eight States *

YEARS	STATES	YEARS	STATES
1852 . . .	Massachusetts	1889 . . .	Colorado, Oregon
1867 . . .	Vermont	1890 . . .	Utah
1871 . . .	New Hampshire, Michigan, Washington	1895 . . .	Pennsylvania
1872 . . .	Connecticut, New Mexico	1896 . . .	Kentucky
1873 . . .	Nevada	1897 . . .	West Virginia, Indiana
1874 . . .	New York, Kansas, California	1899 . . .	Arizona
1875 . . .	Maine, New Jersey	1902 . . .	Iowa, Maryland
1876 . . .	Wyoming	1905 . . .	Missouri, Tennessee
1877 . . .	Ohio	1907 . . .	Delaware, North Carolina, Oklahoma
1879 . . .	Wisconsin	1908 . . .	Virginia
1883 . . .	Rhode Island, North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, Illinois	1909 . . .	Arkansas
1885 . . .	Minnesota	1910 . . .	Louisiana
1887 . . .	Nebraska, Idaho	1915 . . .	Florida, South Carolina
		1916 . . .	Texas
		1917 . . .	Alabama, Georgia
		1918 . . .	Mississippi

* From A. O. Heck, *The Administration of Pupil Personnel* (Boston, Ginn and Co., 1929), p. 22. Reproduced by permission of and arrangement with the publishers.

Compulsory school attendance has been accepted generally as an essential corollary to free public education. The state is responsible for making sure that all its children, for their own sake, receive education. A democratic state is also duty bound to demand for its own protection and preservation that all its children receive the essential elements of a good education. Compulsory school attendance laws are thus firmly rooted in social policy in this country.

² F. C. Ensign, *Compulsory School Attendance and Child Labor* (Iowa City, Iowa, The Athens Press, 1921), p. 10.

³ G. H. Martin, *The Evolution of the Massachusetts Public School System* (New York, D. Appleton and Co., 1898), p. 8.

Existing legislation dealing with the age span for compulsory school attendance is detailed in Table 7. The ages most common for compulsory attendance are 7-16 (24 states), 8-16 (9 states), and 8-18 (3 states). Exemptions at certain ages, due to the need for working, are found in practically all states. Other exemptions from compulsory attendance are commonly based on (a) physical and mental disability, (b) distance from school, and (c) attendance at private school and private instruction.

TABLE 7: Compulsory School Attendance Ages by States *

STATE	COMPULSORY SCHOOL AGE	STATE	COMPULSORY SCHOOL AGE
1. Alabama	7-16	25. Nebraska	7-16
2. Arizona	8-16	26. Nevada	7-18
3. Arkansas	7-16	27. New Hampshire	8-16
4. California	8-16	28. New Jersey	7-16
5. Colorado	8-16	29. New Mexico	6-16
6. Connecticut	7-16	30. New York	7-16
7. Delaware	7-17	31. North Carolina	7-14
8. Florida	7-16	32. North Dakota	7-17
9. Georgia	8-14	33. Ohio	6-18
10. Idaho	8-18	34. Oklahoma	7-18
11. Illinois	6-16	35. Oregon	8-16
12. Indiana	7-16	36. Pennsylvania	8-18
13. Iowa	7-16	37. Rhode Island	7-16
14. Kansas	7-16	38. South Carolina	7-16
15. Kentucky	7-16	39. South Dakota	7-16
16. Louisiana	7-15	40. Tennessee	7-16
17. Maine	7-16	41. Texas	7-16
18. Maryland	7-16	42. Utah	8-18
19. Massachusetts	7-16	43. Vermont	8-16
20. Michigan	6-16	44. Virginia	7-16
21. Minnesota	8-16	45. Washington	8-16
22. Mississippi	7-16	46. West Virginia	7-16
23. Missouri	7-14	47. Wisconsin	7-16
24. Montana	8-16	48. Wyoming	7-16

* From Maris M. Proffitt and David Segel, *School Census, Compulsory Education, Child Labor: Laws and Regulations*, Bulletin No. 1 (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1945), pp. 14-15.

From the preceding discussion and Table 7 it might be concluded that elementary schools in four states (Illinois, Michigan, New Mexico, and Ohio) must serve children six years of age and over; in 31 states they must serve children seven years of age and over; while in eight states children need not be served until they are eight years of age. Ages six, seven, and eight are the lower limits of compulsory school attendance in the 48 states. Actually such a conclusion would be misleading because each state also has legislation which *permits* but does not require children younger than the lower limit of compulsory schooling to attend under certain conditions. As early as 1932 all but 12 states had made attendance permissive for younger

children. In 3 states the lower limit of permissive attendance was age three; in 20 states it was age four; whereas in other states having permissive legislation it was age four and a half or five.⁴ By 1945 only one state (Arkansas) remained without legislation relating to the education of young children. Between 1942 and 1945, 17 states lowered or adjusted school admission ages to provide educational opportunity for children under age six; 14 states passed permissive legislation pertaining to the establishment of nursery schools; 5 states authorized the use of local funds for nursery schools; 5 states made state aid available to nursery school classes; and 10 states authorized the use of state funds for kindergartens.⁵

The preceding paragraphs demonstrate that legislation does not provide a suitable answer regarding the age of the younger children to be served by elementary schools. Although the lower limits of compulsory schooling define the ages at which children must begin to attend school, permissive attendance by children below these ages leaves the option with local school systems. Except in large cities or the wealthier districts, school provisions for young children are dependent to a large extent upon the availability of state aid for children under six. Local districts frequently take the position that their limited resources should be used to provide the best schools possible for children already in attendance rather than to dilute the services by allocating part of the funds toward the operation of kindergartens and nursery schools. Data presented in Chapter 1 revealed that, in 1947, 53.4 per cent of five-year-olds were in school, (public and nonpublic), and the proportion has probably increased since then. It was also pointed out in Chapter 1 that school provisions for five-year-olds had become sufficiently common to include the kindergarten as an accepted unit in the elementary-school program. Actual practice falls short of this ideal. Kindergartens are not very numerous in rural areas. In 1948 kindergartens were found in only about half of the school systems in cities of 2500 to 4999 population, whereas 84 per cent of city school systems in cities of over 100,000 population were operating one or more kindergartens (Table 8).

Since neither legislation nor a survey of present practice gives an adequate answer regarding the age of the younger children to be served by the elementary school, one may turn to a combination of present practice and educational theory. Most parents everywhere in this country have become accustomed to the idea that at age six children should start in the first grade. Permissive legislation in all states has allowed pupils to enter at age six, and state aid has helped local school districts to finance programs for children beginning at age six. Even though there is nothing in law (in 44 states) which requires six-year-olds to attend school, the practice has been so com-

⁴ W. W. Keesecker, *Public School Attendance Ages in Various States*, U. S. Office of Education, Circular No. 10 (March, 1930), plus supplementary data for 1932.

⁵ "State Legislative Action for Young Children," *School Life*, Vol. 28 (January, 1946), p. 30.

mon for so long that it is universally accepted without many questions being raised. Educational theory has accepted fully the desirability of organized schooling for five-year-olds and about 60 per cent of city-school systems are actually operating kindergartens. No doubt a larger proportion of school systems in smaller communities and rural areas would have kindergartens if funds were available. It can thus be concluded that the elementary school during the second half of the twentieth century should strive for and equip itself to serve all children beginning at age five, and that further exploration and experimentation should be ventured in organized schooling for children under five years of age.

TABLE 8: Per Cent of City School Systems Operating Kindergartens in 1947-1948 *

GROUP	NUMBER OF DISTRICTS REPORTING †	PER CENT THAT IN 1947-1948 WERE OPERATING ONE OR MORE	
		<i>Kindergartens</i>	<i>Prekindergartens</i>
Over 100,000	67	84%	2%
30,000-99,999	161	62	1
10,000-29,999	368	64	3
5,000-9,999	430	55	2
2,500-4,999	492	53	2
New England	116	60	2
Middle Atlantic	372	68	2
Southeast	152	9	0
Middle	539	70	4
Southwest	116	16	2
Northwest	108	63	2
Far West	115	80	0
All groups	1,518 †	59%	2%

* From "Trends in City-School Organization, 1938 to 1948," *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 27, No. 1 (February, 1949), p. 13.

† Excludes the 80 districts which operate high schools only.

Only three states (Georgia, Missouri, and North Carolina) retain age 14 as the upper limit of compulsory school attendance (Table 7). Fourteen is the age at which a pupil might be expected to complete the eighth grade in an eight-year elementary school. This is the only point at which there is a possible relationship between the upper limit of elementary schooling and the age span for compulsory school attendance. Even this coincidence would exist only in school systems in the three states named in which eight-year elementary schools were being operated. In other school systems in the three states and in all other states, the upper limit of compulsory school attendance is from one to six years above the age at which the majority of pupils would normally complete the last grade of the elementary school. Compulsory school attendance ages are thus no index to the upper limit of the ages of children served by elementary schools.

The only approach that is helpful in arriving at the upper age limits of pupils served by elementary schools is an examination of the years of schooling encompassed by the program of the elementary school. The 1372 city school systems represented in Table 9 are probably representative of the 3796 such systems in existence in 1948. In approximately two-thirds of the 1372 school systems the elementary-school program concluded with the sixth grade. The six-year elementary school is about equally prevalent in

TABLE 9: Pattern of Organization Followed in 1372 City School Systems Which Include Both Elementary and Secondary Grades, 1948 *

GROUP	PATTERN OF ORGANIZATION (Per Cent Having)				
	8-4	6-3-3, 6-3-3-2, 6-6, 6-2-4, 6-2-4-2	5-3-4	7-5, 7-2-3	Other Plans
Over 100,000	16	74	0	4	6
30,000-99,999	16	76	1	2	5
10,000-29,999	21	70	1	5	3
5,000- 9,999	26	65	2	5	2
2,500- 4,999	27	64	3	3	3
New England	37	61	1	1	0
Middle Atlantic	21	73	1	4	1
Southeast	19	56	1	16	6
Middle	25	69	1	2	3
Southwest	26	61	5	4	4
Northwest	12	78	5	2	3
Far West	22	59	4	6	9
All Groups	23%	68%	2%	4%	3%
Number of cases..	321	928	25	56	42

* Adapted from "Trends in City-School Organization, 1938 to 1948," *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 27, No. 1 (February, 1949), p. 10.

cities of all sizes and in all parts of the United States except in the southeastern region in which 16 per cent of the cities were maintaining a seven-year elementary school. The only other grade span prevalent to any appreciable extent was the eight-year elementary school, 23 per cent of the 1372 city school systems adhering to this type of unit. No comparable data are available for schools in rural areas but the trend toward consolidation of districts into larger administrative units has probably resulted in the establishment of an increasing number of six-year elementary schools. Recent data showing the proportion of elementary-school pupils in five-year, six-year, seven-year, and eight-year elementary schools are not available but it is probably safe to assume that fully half of the schools in rural areas and somewhat less than one-fourth of the schools in urban areas are eight-year schools. Since the rural population was slightly over one-third of the total population in 1950, it may be concluded that approximately one-third of

all elementary schools, urban and rural, are eight-year schools. The trend seems to be toward the development of six-year elementary schools in communities in which changes are being made.

The preceding analyses result in the conclusion that the typical elementary school in the United States has a seven-year program serving the general age group of 5 to 12, inclusive, and consisting of kindergarten and Grades 1 through 6. Variations from this typical pattern are numerous. About one-third of the schools have eight grades and about 6 per cent have five or seven grades. Somewhat over half of the schools, at least in urban areas, provide kindergartens regardless of the number of other grades included in the elementary program.

The age group from 5 to 12 or 5 to 14, inclusive, represents "all the children of all the people" in the fullest meaning of that phrase. It includes children from all kinds of homes in all kinds of places. The group includes children who distribute themselves over the full range of mental abilities, special abilities and limitations, general and special social and emotional problems and needs, and learning rates and difficulties. Some of the children will be troubled with epilepsy, crippling conditions, hearing loss, poor vision or blindness, speech disorders, or lowered vitality. Estimates indicate that in the United States there are approximately 15,000 blind children, 60,000 partially seeing children, 3,500,000 children with impaired hearing, 1,000,000 with speech defects that require special treatment, 125,000 crippled children in need of special education, 1,000,000 with weak or damaged hearts, 6,000,000 who are malnourished, 500,000 who are mentally retarded to such a degree as to require special education, and about 300,000 gifted pupils with I.Q.'s of 130 or over.

THE CHARACTERISTICS OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL CHILDREN

The age group served by elementary schools has been identified as children between the ages of 5 and 12 or 5 and 14, inclusive, depending upon whether a community's elementary-school program concludes with the sixth, seventh, or eighth grade. In a few school systems children are admitted to the kindergarten at four and one-half years of age and some children do not leave the sixth grade until they are 13 or more years of age or the eighth grade until they are 15 or more years old. Many children, of course, become 12 years old while they are in the sixth grade while others in eight-year elementary schools become 14 years old while they are in the eighth grade. Ages 5 and 11 or 13 are the typical ages at the beginning of the kindergarten year and the sixth or eighth grade. Actually the elementary school must be equipped to serve children from 5 to 12 or 12½ or 5 to 14 or 14½ years of age. What are the major characteristics of children in this age group?

Space does not permit a comprehensive treatment of all that is known about children of elementary-school age but enough of a general summary

Socially kindergarteners and first graders are still very dependent in that they need help with so many of their personal affairs, but psychologically they desire to assert their independence. They really haven't learned how to be nice to people, how to get people to like them, how to cooperate in an activity, or how to lead a group to desired ends. They want to be with people, but at the same time others are always getting in their way. The resultant behaviors present a curious combination of contrasts and conflicts, intermittent and vacillating efforts at peacemaking and fighting, co-operation and disharmony, helpfulness and discourtesy.

Sixth or eighth graders are definitely social beings. Most of them have outgrown the "gang age" which usually extends from the seventh year to pre-adolescence, but many still belong to the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, or Camp-fire Girls. Camping experiences of all types are in high favor. Play and games of all types are enjoyed by both sexes. Mostly the two sexes prefer to play separately but some games are enjoyed on a coeducational basis. Boy-girl relations appear to be bivalent. Boys manifest disinterest if not actual dislike for girls but at the same time the boys like to tease, nudge, jostle, and talk smart to the girls. The girls in turn would be disappointed if the boys paid no attention to them. Both boys and girls of this age feel rather self-conscious and many of their thrusts, teasings, and rebuffs at the opposite sex are merely manifestations of readiness for friendship without the knowledge or security of experienced means of expression.

Sixth graders have rather full knowledge of the customary courtesies and forms of cooperation but they have great difficulty putting them into practice with each other. Concern for peer status, dressing and acting like others, being liked, and having friends looms large in this age period. Desire for peer status is confined largely to status within the same sex. Boys admire in other boys such traits as expertness in organized games, readiness to take chances in daring escapades, ingenuity in leadership, friendliness, good humor, and a happy disposition. Girls admire in other girls such characteristics as good humor, friendliness, attractive appearance, quietness, and non-aggressive qualities.

Children age 11 and over have fairly well developed ethical and moral standards. They can think things through quite well and show evidence of good reasoning. They are interested in the right and wrong, in justice, and in fairness. They have a keen interest in social and economic problems. Concepts of private property, honesty, and truthfulness are well established. Individual and group standards are likely to be high and they are disgusted with those who do not live up to them.

Intellectual characteristics. In a typical kindergarten class mental ages of pupils will range from three years, six months, to seven years, six months, with unusual cases falling below or above this range. Intelligence quotients will range from 60 to 130 or over. Usually the range in mental ages increases as children move into the intermediate and upper grades. By the end of the

eighth grade mental ages will range from 11.6 or 12 years to more than 18 years in some instances. Of three children with the same mental age, one may learn very rapidly, one at an average rate, and one very slowly. In terms of mental maturity and learning rate each age or grade group represents a very heterogeneous situation. The range in mental age in any one class may be as much as six or seven years, a span equal to the number of years encompassed by the whole elementary-school program.

The average five-year-old has a vocabulary of about 2000 words. Many five-year-olds can recognize a few printed words. Some can write their own names. Rote and rational counting up to 10 is achieved by a fair proportion. Geographical orientation to home and neighborhood has usually been mastered. The five-year-old is in almost constant motion. He likes to jump, slide, roll, climb, run, dig, pound, lift, and throw, but he shows little desire to excel other children in these activities. He builds houses and garages with blocks, enjoys simple dramatization, and uses his fingers well in drawing, painting, cutting, and feeding and dressing himself.

As children mature through the years their interests and capabilities change and broaden. The child's concept of natural phenomena gradually develops from fantasy and personal identification to an understanding of natural laws. At about eight or nine years of age the child begins to make a clear distinction between himself and the outer world. By age 12 the concept of natural laws and physical relationships has become almost fully developed. Animal stories involving the element of personification and fairy tales are replaced at about age nine for stories of real life. Children's questions in the intermediate grades reveal genuine interest in the causes of social phenomena, methods of communication, transportation, invention, the development of cities, social customs, and current events. Questions about science show a shift from animals and plant life to the "earth," energy, weather, climate, astronomy, and the human body.

By the end of the elementary-school period some boys and girls are still children, whereas others seem almost mature. Both sexes are becoming more self-conscious, more aware of what other people think of them, and more self-critical. Increasing interest is found in social parties, entertainments, and church affairs. Reading interests are now very broad. By the end of the upper grade in the elementary school the majority of pupils have reached levels of development in nearly all academic fields which correspond favorably with those of common adult usage.

Individual differences. The most outstanding characteristic of children consists of the differences among them. No two of them at any age are exactly alike. Children differ in every trait or characteristic which comes under the observation of teachers. Although each age group as well as contiguous age groups have many common characteristics, interests, and needs, there are enough differences to make work with children a complex activity. Six-year-olds differ more among themselves than they as a group differ from the

seven-year olds. And so it is with every two contiguous age or grade groups. Schools must be so organized and taught as to make provision for these similarities and differences and to enable each child to progress at his own rate toward attainment of the purposes of education to the full extent of each one's potentiality.

Home, community, and general factors. The children who attend elementary schools come from every type of home, neighborhood, and community to be found in this country. In 1949 there were about 39 million families in the United States, about 40 per cent of whom had no children under 18 years of age. Forty per cent of the families with children had only one child under 18, 30 per cent had two children, and 15 per cent had three or more related children under 18 years of age. About half of the children under 18 years of age were in families with three or more children. More than half of the families with three or more children and almost two-thirds of the families with five or more children were families on farms or in rural-nonfarm areas. There were about 100,000 children under 18 years of age on Indian reservations. One out of every five mothers with three or more children under 18 worked outside the home. One out of every eight children was not living with both parents; 4.7 per cent lived with neither parent; and 8.5 per cent lived with one parent. Among the children living with only one parent, approximately 1,500,000 lived with a widowed parent, 900,000 with a divorced parent, and 1,500,000 had a parent away from home. In one year (1948) almost 38,000 babies and children were adopted by people unrelated to them either by birth or by marriage.

The average income of the nation's families reached \$3187 in 1948, yet many children are in families of low income. Most large families have lower incomes than most small families. In 1948 the average income per person was \$1100 in families with one child and \$300 or less in families with six or more children. Population mobility naturally means that many children move about from place to place and change schools. Between 1948 and 1949 the homes of eight million children changed. Most of them moved from one urban or rural-nonfarm home to another. Approximately 346,000 children aged 6-13 were not enrolled in any school in 1949. In urban areas 5 per cent of children 6-17 years of age were not in school, whereas 11 per cent of those living on farms were not enrolled in school. Children of migratory workers are most likely to be out of school.⁷ For October, 1950, the Bureau of the Census estimated that 150,000 children 10 through 13 years of age and 165,000 of the 14- and 15-year-olds were working for pay in agriculture.⁸

⁷ Data adapted from *A Chart Book: Children and Youth at the Midcentury* (Washington, Midcentury White House Conference on Children and Youth, 1950).

⁸ *Migratory Labor in American Agriculture*, report of the President's Commission on Migratory Labor (1951), p. 161.

SOME GENERALIZATIONS ABOUT CHILDREN'S DEVELOPMENT

Exact research on an extensive scale regarding children's growth, development, behavior, and learning has been conducted in the United States and in other countries for a little more than 30 years. The gradual accumulation, synthesis, and interpretation of data have resulted in a long list of major and minor generalizations about the many-sided phases of child life. An understanding of these generalizations is essential for all who work with children and especially for those responsible for the organization and administration of schools. The items given below are not intended to be exhaustive but merely to orient the reader to the basic issues. Further insight and detail may be obtained by examining the sources from which these generalizations were drawn.⁹

1. Growth and development follow an orderly pattern. The growth and development of human beings are not of a haphazard, unorganized type. Rather, they occur in an orderly, patterned fashion. (The growth of nearly all individuals seems to follow a common pattern or cycle.) The order of developmental events is quite constant from one child to another. Each stage is the outcome of the one preceding it, and is the prerequisite for the one that follows. No child, for example, learns to walk without having first learned to stand. For the great mass of children, these patterns or stages of growth and development follow each other in a sufficiently fixed sequence so that it is possible to establish age and sequence norms which represent the average for large numbers of children of the same age or developmental stage. Such norms are very useful in appraising the progress of individuals, but they should not become standards for rating children.

2. While there are individual differences in growth patterns of the organic structures, human growth is orderly, coherent, harmonious, and continuous. Individual differences do exist in trend, tempo, and level of development due to the interaction of intrinsic and extrinsic forces.

3. The functioning of the various structures of the organism is usually harmonious in the normal individual. The inharmonious grower, often referred to as a "split grower" and frequently identified as a problem child, may adjust satisfactorily under sympathetic guidance.

4. The physical growth of nearly all individuals seems to follow a common pattern or cycle. Human beings show great changes in velocity or rate of growth from conception to maturity. The first cycle of accelerated growth starts early in the prenatal period and reaches its peak approximately at birth. Deceleration continues from birth to the third or fourth year; growth

⁹ See footnote 6; also *Physiological Aspects of Child Growth and Development* and *Aspects of Child Growth and Development* (Washington, American Council on Education, 1941).

then continues at a fairly uniform rate until the beginning of the puberal cycle. Just prior to the onset of the puberal cycle there is usually a short but clearly defined deceleration in the velocity of growth. The puberal cycle, lasting from four to seven years, is followed by a period of from one to five years during which the rate of growth diminishes.

5. Physical growth is seldom regular or uniform in all structures during the whole period of growth. Different stages in the growth cycle usually are marked by differential rates of growth in different parts of the organism and by changes in the rate of growth of the whole organism. For example, the metabolic rate is much more rapid in children than in adults; the nervous system has virtually completed its growth by the age of 12 years for most individuals (the brain and spinal cord have attained nine-tenths of their full growth by age 6); the growth of the skeletal system progresses at a rate which is different from that of the muscular system in many individuals at certain periods, particularly at adolescence.

6. The achieving of maximum growth in size or sheer bulk does not necessarily mean that a given structure has attained full development in the articulations, changes in tissue quality, and other modifications which make optimum functioning possible.

7. The varying growth rates of different structures have many implications for the social and emotional adjustment of the child. Each individual follows the growth pattern at his own rate, even though there is a common pattern for all individuals. Deviations from normal growth patterns are not uncommon. The great majority of these variations are actually normal for the individual; at the completion of the growth period most of the apparent deviation has disappeared.

8. There are significant differences between the sexes in the body proportions ultimately achieved and in the ages at which different growth stages are reached. Growth curves in average body weight generally show girls to be lighter than boys up to the age of 12, heavier than boys up to the age of 15, then lighter than boys after 15. On the average, girls show their initial puberal spurt in height and weight at approximately 11 years of age and they attain their maximum stature at an average of 15. For the average boy the initial spurt in height and weight occurs at about age 13 and maximum stature is not reached until after age 17. Girls consistently exceed boys in rate of anatomic development from birth to age 18.

9. Physical, intellectual, and social growth are definitely and significantly interrelated. Changes in interests, attitudes, and purposes are closely related to conditions of physical growth. Children who show marked deviations in maturity, developing very late or very early, are sometimes subject to anxieties or patterns of withdrawal as a result of being different from the group. The ability to compete physically is closely associated with a child's achievement of confidence and his feelings of security in associating with his peers. Periods of marked acceleration of physical growth are usually accompanied

by definite modifications in the child's social behavior. Pronounced deviations from the growth pattern established by the child are frequently accompanied by changes in the behavior pattern. Freedom from emotional strain is important for normal growth and health. School achievement often reflects to a significant degree the condition of a child's physical status.

10. Specific personality traits exhibited by the child vary in different types of social settings. Traits exhibited by the child at school may be very different from those exhibited elsewhere.

11. Inward reactions of the child are often more indicative of personal-social adjustment than outward responses.

12. The child's personal-social behavior is often greatly concerned with the establishment and maintenance of satisfactory peer relationships.

13. Feelings, emotions, and attitudes are those aspects of development which refer to the quality of a child's experience in his attempt to reach a goal.

14. Group relationships modify the child's emotional stability. The emotionally stable child has a sense of belonging to his group.

15. Self-confidence and a feeling of adequacy are important factors in emotional health. The child who lacks techniques of participation with others, or who is thwarted by his background, or whose talents have not been discovered, needs an area of supremacy to achieve emotional balance.

16. Attitudes have a significant role in development. The individual evaluates his own actions and those of others on the basis of his attitudes.

17. Wholesome sexual development is a factor in emotional maturing.

18. Intellectual development undergoes expansion and specialization. This involves a constant interplay between sensing, emotion, and thinking.

19. The processes of problem solving, reasoning, understanding, and application form the fundamental basis for intellectual development.

20. Goals and purposes are significant in determining the direction of intellectual development. The nature of goals is closely related to the stage of development.

21. Interests and desires are important factors in intellectual development.

22. Creative activity gives important clues to the child's intellectual development.

23. Many forms of behavior are characteristically normal for different age groups. Much of children's behavior judged inappropriate or antisocial by teachers and parents simply represents normal behavior in terms of the efforts children make to adjust to and utilize their environment at their respective stages of development. The child who dashes in front of an adult without excusing himself probably does not mean to be impolite; in his eagerness to pursue a goal he simply takes the shortest route and forgets to excuse himself. The boy who is proud of the shabbiness of his attire is a perfectly normal boy; adult standards for good grooming have no usefulness

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for him at his age. The chief problem is that adults expect children to live by adult standards; they are unfamiliar with—or have forgotten—the characteristic behaviors of children at different stages along the route to maturity.

24. Learning and behavior are caused. There has been so much misinformation about the role of heredity that many persons still believe that everything a person is results from heredity. An accurate understanding of the respective roles of heredity and environment is prerequisite to an understanding of the educative process. The stature to which a person *can* grow and develop is determined largely by heredity, but the *kind* of person he will be is determined largely by environment (i.e., by the character and quality of the education that he has had). Whether a person has the *capacity* for a high degree or a mediocre degree of proficiency in mechanics, typing, music, or public speaking is set by hereditary factors, but whether he actually becomes as skilled in mechanics, typing, music, honesty, or public speaking as he could be depends upon his education. Whether a child becomes a thief or an honest citizen, a liar or a truthful person, a cooperative individual or a one-man team, English-speaking or Spanish-speaking, illiterate or able to read and write, depends upon his education.

25. The child and his environment are inseparable entities. A person's behavior does not take place in a vacuum; he is always behaving or reacting in relationship to persons, objects, or situations. Each person draws upon one or more phases of his environment to satisfy his needs. Thus the environment is as intimate a part of each experience as is the organism. The complexity of this interrelationship can be visualized only as one realizes the complexity of the human organism and the complexity of the multitudinous environmental situations. An illustration may also help to clarify the point. A child becomes hungry; if the environment (the home) has been providing a normal supply of food in the customary manner, the child most likely will help himself in accordance with socially approved methods; if, however, the environment does not provide food in the usual manner, the child *will seek* food, and he must obtain it in the best way he can; so he may rummage in neighborhood garbage cans or steal it at a store or take it away from another child who has some. The way in which the environment makes available the resources necessary for meeting needs and the kinds of resources available in the environment have much to do with the way children behave and what they learn.

26. Learning takes place in problem-solving situations. All learning involves the solving of problems. Learning takes place when, in his goal-seeking efforts, the child acquires a new way of behaving (a habit, skill, knowledge, or understanding). Although man is capable of two types of behavior, reflex and problem solving, only the problem-solving type of behavior results in learning. When the organism faces a sufficiently novel situation, old responses will not suffice. If success is to ensue, a new response not heretofore used by that person, at least not in this type of situation, must

be created. Each newly learned response makes the child capable of types of behavior of which he was not capable before such learning had taken place.

Life that is rich with learning must be filled with problem situations. To live richly is to experience many conflicts. In the very nature of things, human beings must accept a certain amount of frustration and maladjustment. The integrated personality is not one that experiences no conflicts and no frustrations, but one that has learned to face reality, one that has acquired problem-solving techniques which retain integrity of personality.

It stands to reason that if learning is to progress in a wholesome, optimum manner, the nature and the difficulty of the problems which confront children must be adapted to their developmental levels. Problems that are too difficult for a given child either create insurmountable frustration or are not even recognized by the child as problems. Those which are too easy offer no challenge and no opportunity for learning. Each child brings to each problem situation his existing growth and development status (his readiness) with its skills, knowledges, attitudes, and understandings. These constitute his working equipment. The new problem must be of such difficulty that he can appropriately apply his working equipment to contrive a solution which, through its very contriving, enables new ways of behaving to appear.

27. Learning implies activity. Learning takes place while the individual is engaged in activity of some sort. The very nature of the educative process requires that the individual himself work through the problem situations. This experience may be characterized by varying degrees of overt physical activity; it may be vicarious; it may deal with real things; or it may be a combination of the two. But the organism must be actively engaged in going through the experience; activity must be inherent in a purposive, problem-solving situation which is a truly goal-seeking enterprise for the individual.

28. The individual must be motivated to learn. It was pointed out earlier that children's needs arise out of organismic functioning and the interactions between organism and environment. When the equilibrium of the organism is upset by a change either within or without the organism, there ensues a stress, or an urge. The organism strives to maintain a wholesome, satisfying equilibrium. Out of this effort grows behavior. Behavior is thus goal seeking. Basically, it is purposive. Motivation arises out of the child's desire to meet his needs. Interest is that *relationship between* the pupil's present tendencies toward and capacities for behavior *and* the immediate goal toward which he is working; interest prevails when the child regards the goal and the effort to achieve it as worth while.

Motivation relates to the energizing of behavior. Adequate motivation involves the vitalization of tasks which results in efficient behavior. Motivating conditions initiate and energize activity, direct the organism's behavior, and dispose it to select some responses and to disregard or to eliminate

others. Motivation serves to direct and to regulate behavior toward a goal.

All learning involves motives. The motive in a given learning situation determines the quality and direction of the activity that will be carried out. The strength of the desire to participate in a learning situation is usually related to the needs of the child. To motivate learning is to make use of already existing motives or to stimulate the discovery of new ones. Since needs, interests, desires, and goals result in part from earlier experiences, the teacher, by selecting activities with the framework of the learner's needs, may greatly influence future desires and interests.

Many circumstances influence the nature and intensity of motives. The morale of the school has a significant influence upon motivation. An individual child's relationships within the class and the school affect motivation. Teacher-pupil relationships influence the desire to learn. Any procedure which lowers or raises his prestige motivates the learner, but not always in desirable directions. The child learns more effectively when tasks are presented which he can understand and accept as being relevant to his world. Procedures which offer opportunity for discovery, exploration, and creativity usually result in efficient learning. The more definite the goal in the eyes of the learner, the more direct his activity and the more efficient the learning. The learner tends to learn more efficiently when he has knowledge of his progress. Motive is the basis of learning.

29. Worth-while learning situations must be arranged. At any given level of a child's development the variety of motives is so large and the variety of activities so great that there are many alternatives with respect to the activities in which children may engage. It becomes necessary, therefore, for someone to select from among the wide array of possible activities those which are most useful for promoting the types of growth and development indicated by the purposes of education. This is the problem of the curriculum.

Not only must there be a selection of the most useful and appropriate activities, but there must also be appropriate and adequate materials, physical setting, and methods of procedure, so that the activities which have been selected may be carried forward in ways which will result in the desired outcomes. In the selection of activities and in the way in which the activities are conducted, there should be extensive cooperative teacher-pupil planning, in order that the goals and the activities may represent the closest possible relationship to pupil needs and interests. This is the only way in which a high degree of motivation may prevail. These criteria make it imperative that each teacher be accorded considerable freedom in choosing, with her pupils, the particular activities which will engage her class. Such teacher freedom can be achieved within the framework of broad curriculum-planning.¹⁰

¹⁰ The last seven items were reproduced from the author's *Principles of Elementary Education* (New York, Rinehart and Co., 1949), pp. 278-295.

EDUCATION IN ITS SOCIETAL SETTING

Our ideals and hopes for our children, the pupils served by elementary schools, the characteristics of elementary-school children, and generalizations about children's development provide the background knowledge in terms of which one can face the question as to what elementary schools should do for children. One other fundamental consideration must be drawn into the picture. For what kind of life in what kind of culture are children to be educated? What is the role of the culture in determining educational goals? It seems obvious that a society that supports education would want that education to assist in preserving and improving that society. It is not likely that any society would deliberately and consciously foster or tolerate an educational program known to be effective in destroying that society.

The culture of a people consists of the geography of the region, the material objects which are the products of man's activity, and the nonmaterial traits which include a vast and interpenetrating number of behavior habits and patterns. Bear has classified these nonmaterial traits into five groups: namely, folkways and mores (including customs, morals, laws, and beliefs), art, knowledge and techniques, language, and habits of institutional and group organization.¹¹ Obviously this culture is noticeably different in different parts of the world. One child learns to speak English, another Spanish; one child's mainstay is rice, another's is meat and vegetables; one child rides in automobiles, another in canoes. The cultural heritage for any given child is the accumulated race experience which is incorporated in the current mode of living of the people in whose midst he is reared.

Except in unusual instances in which the people are in revolt against their own culture, the adults of a society are the blood stream of that society and are eager to retain and perpetuate their culture even though the need for improvements is recognized and progress is sought. The people themselves are an inseparable part of their culture and at the same time serve as changers of their culture. Their aspirations for their children are inseparable elements of the culture itself. Usually parents, at least in this country, hope that the culture will improve without undergoing too radical a departure from its present character so that their children may have a happier and fuller life than the parents themselves have had. They also want their children to reflect their own highest ideals and to acquire the knowledges, attitudes, and proficiencies essential for a successful, self-sustaining, constructive life in the culture. In fact, it is highly important that children acquire the essentials of their culture for unless they do they will be unqualified to sustain themselves in it and the culture itself would disappear. Education of its children is the method whereby a social group sustains itself through continuous self-renewal. Education of the immature members of a group,

¹¹ R. M. Bear, *The Social Functions of Education* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1937), p. 11.

therefore, becomes essential to the survival and advancement of the group. Education is thus the keystone to cultural survival and advancement.

The culture of a society, therefore, constitutes the major frame of reference from which schools derive their objectives. Schools are a creation of and an instrument for the preservation and improvement of the culture. It seems only natural that the school should have developed into a place where children are provided with a specialized environment as contrasted with a chance environment. At least for the earlier years of childhood, it has been made a simplified environment in which the more difficult and complex aspects of the adult world have been removed. To the extent that the harsh and corrupt practices of everyday life have been banished, the school provides a purified environment. For most children it provides experiences much broader than would be available otherwise. But what the nature of this school program shall be depends upon the culture, ideology, and aspirations of the society of which it is a part, and upon the specialized functions which formalized schooling is to serve in that society. Since the school is predestined to find its orientation in the society it serves, it is necessary to analyze the essential features of that society and to determine as clearly as possible what functions the school should endeavor to discharge. For our purposes in the United States, we need to identify the essential features of American democracy and the functions of the school therein.

AMERICAN DEMOCRACY DESCRIBED

The people of the United States, from the very founding of this republic, created a constitution and have subsequently passed laws with the intent of creating a society which would manifest a democratic way of life. Some say that our form of society is a democracy; others approach the problem by describing democracy as a way of life.¹² At best a democratic society does not lend itself to a simple definition. Most writers have ended up with a description of democracy rather than a definition.¹³ Attention will be given here only to three outstanding recent attempts at description.

After calling attention to the fact that there can be no official definition of democracy, that what we call the American way of life is still evolving, still struggling toward ideals that steadily move upward with man's enlightened progress, and that the general term *democracy* needs breaking up so that there can be general understanding of its component meanings, Russell and Briggs present a creed of Democracy which was prepared in 1940 by the faculty of Teachers College, Columbia University. The statement, consisting of 60 items, is prefaced by "We believe in and will endeavor to make

¹² B. H. Bode, *Democracy As a Way of Life* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1937).

¹³ C. E. Merriam, *What Is Democracy?* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1941).

a democracy which. . . ." The entire list of 60 items is too extensive to quote in full. Characteristic of the entire group are items 6 and 19 which read as follows: "protects every individual against exploitation by special privilege or power" and "insures standards of living in which every individual can retain his own self-respect and unabashed make his peculiar contribution to the society in which he lives." The entire statement must be studied very carefully to appreciate its usefulness in clarifying educational thinking.¹⁴

Four of the publications of the Educational Policies Commission of the N.E.A. and the American Association of School Administrators are especially pertinent here.¹⁵ In Chapter II of *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* an attempt is made to sweep into a few broad generalizations the minimum essentials of democracy. The gist of the formulation is given in the following quotation:

The General Welfare. Democracy prizes a broad humanitarianism, an interest in the other fellow, a feeling of kinship to other people more or less fortunate than oneself. One who lives in accordance with democracy is interested not only in his own welfare but in the welfare of others—the general welfare.

Civil Liberty. Democratic behavior observes and accords to every individual certain "unalienable rights" and certain inescapable corollary responsibilities. One who lives in a democratic way respects himself. And to self-respect he adds respect for the moral rights and feelings of others, for the sanctity of each individual personality.

The Consent of the Governed. Democratic processes also involve the assent of the people in matters of social control and the participation of all concerned in arriving at important decisions. This implies that all the people must have access to the facts which will help them to reach a wise decision.

The Appeal to Reason. Peaceful and orderly methods of settling controversial questions are applied by a democracy to matters of national and international policy as well as to private disputes. The callous use of force and violence is rejected as unworthy of a civilized people.

The Pursuit of Happiness. Finally, democracy sets high value upon the attainment of human happiness as a basis for judging the effectiveness of social life.

We are to examine each of these five ideals of democratic conduct, seeking from them to derive a general understanding of the purposes of our schools. It is desirable to preface this examination by a brief sketch of some aspects of the development of democracy in this country and of its present status in the world. No comprehensive treatment is attempted here; the Commission has in preparation a more extensive report on the historical background of educational and social purposes.

¹⁴ *Democracy and Education in the Current Crisis* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940), as quoted in W. F. Russell and T. H. Briggs, *The Meaning of Democracy* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1941), pp. 206-212.

¹⁵ *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy, The Purposes of Education in American Democracy, The Education of Free Men in American Democracy, and Education and Economic Well-Being in American Democracy* (Washington, N.E.A., 1937, 1938, 1941, and 1940).

To get the full impact of this condensed statement one should read in its entirety Chapter II of this publication of the Educational Policies Commission.

Pittenger, after analysing the descriptions of democracy prepared by several individuals and organizations, including the two formulations just presented, prepared a summary statement which included the essential elements of the publications analysed plus such supplementation as he deemed desirable to complete the statement. He says: ¹⁶

Here, then, are suggestions of persistent basic principles of American democratic ideology which, if not exactly "eternal verities," are universal in their applicability to all members of our society and apparently likely to continue so throughout the future. Democracy fundamentally respects the authority of truth rather than that of autocratic leaders or classes; it accents compromise in the provisional adjustment of controversies to secure pragmatic ends; it believes in human equality as opposed to the fixed differentiations of hereditary castes, and it keeps open the avenues of progress for each individual citizen: it places the rights and responsibilities of individuals above those of any institution, including the state; it protects and aids individuals through proper provision for the general welfare; it accepts the principles of popular sovereignty and civil liberty; and it establishes the expansion and maintenance of human happiness as the criterion for judging the efficiency of social processes and institutions. Partisans of different ideal programs may interpret or weight these several concepts differently, or they may give them different directions or applications; but none will take serious exception to any of them. Some too conscientious realists will possibly protest most or all of these suggestions on the ground that they are visionary ideals. No society, it may be said, has achieved or ever will achieve them to an acceptable degree. It may even be charged that some are inconsistent with others, as, for example, the principles of compromise and truth. In answer it should first be said that these principles, doubtless with others not here mentioned, comprise a total picture of essential democracy; that no one of them is supposed to stand alone or to assume ascendancy over the others. Adjustment or compromise between or among them, especially in times of crisis, is wholly legitimate. As for their being ideal or visionary, it is necessary only to recall the purpose for which they have been adduced. We are seeking foundation principles which have such approach to universality as to warrant their inculcation in all citizens through the medium of the institution maintained by all citizens—i.e., the school. What but ideals are appropriate for indoctrination into the minds and hearts of all children and youth through the processes of formal education? What right has partisanship of any sort, except partisanship for democracy itself, to a place in such an enterprise? And who shall say that a serious effort to indoctrinate the entire growing citizenry in these ideals will not result in their more effective realization?

Democracy is the hope of mankind, but it can be its own most dangerous enemy. As a way of life, it offers to man release for the best or the worst that is in him. No other society affords equal opportunity for achieving self-respect and self-reliance, and respect and responsibility for others, on the part of all men; and no other society can become so completely saturated with selfishness

¹⁶ B. F. Pittenger, *Indoctrination for American Democracy* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1941), pp. 42-45.

and irresponsibility from the top to bottom. At its best, democracy's strength is not merely "as the strength of ten"; it is as the compounded strength of the millions of virile individuals who compose it. At its worst, democracy is as feeble as its citizens are feeble and further debilitated by their selfish clamorings and quarrels. Democracy, like all societies, is subject to the rule that "in union there is strength" and also to the law that "a house divided against itself cannot stand." But, unlike other societies, democracy's choice between unity and discord, between blind individual selfishness and responsibility for others' welfare, between weakness and strength—aye, between life and death!—must be made democratically through the vision and will of a whole people.

THE PURPOSES OF EDUCATION IN AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

A thoughtful consideration of the purpose of schools in American society should be undertaken only after one has formulated clear concepts regarding the orientation of education in any society and the peculiar characteristics and ideology of American culture. Although these two types of analyses are frequently omitted in published statements of general educational objectives, the fact that authors have kept them in mind is evident in the nature of the objectives which they have prepared. Since education cannot proceed intelligently in any country unless its purposes, its objectives, the direction in which it is going, have been clearly defined, and, since the question of clearly defined purposes of education is particularly difficult in a complex democratic society, it is not surprising that the problem of general purposes in education has received much attention in the professional literature of this country. An evolving, changing society automatically precipitates the need for periodic reconsideration and reformulation of its educational objectives. Unless such periodic evaluations and restatements are made the schools cannot keep abreast of their changing role in society.

The most thoroughgoing recent formulation of the general purposes of education in this country was prepared by the Educational Policies Commission. Four major groups of objectives were identified. These four groups, together with the essential elements in each, are as follows:¹⁷

I. THE OBJECTIVES OF SELF-REALIZATION

- The Inquiring Mind.* The educated person has an appetite for learning.
- Speech.* The educated person can speak the mother tongue clearly.
- Reading.* The educated person reads the mother tongue efficiently.
- Writing.* The educated person writes the mother tongue effectively.
- Number.* The educated person solves his problems of counting and calculating.
- Sight and Hearing.* The educated person is skilled in listening and observing.
- Health Knowledge.* The educated person understands the basic facts concerning health and disease.
- Health Habits.* The educated person protects his own health and that of his dependents.

¹⁷ *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, op. cit., pp. 50, 72, 90, and 108.

Public Health. The educated person works to improve the health of the community.

Recreation. The educated person is participant and spectator in many sports and other pastimes.

Intellectual Interests. The educated person has mental resources for the use of leisure.

Esthetic Interests. The educated person appreciates beauty.

Character. The educated person gives responsible direction to his own life.

II. THE OBJECTIVES OF HUMAN RELATIONSHIP

Respect for Humanity. The educated person puts human relationships first.

Friendships. The educated person enjoys a rich, sincere, and varied social life.

Cooperation. The educated person can work and play with others.

Courtesy. The educated person observes the amenities of social behavior.

Appreciation of the Home. The educated person appreciates the family as a social institution.

Conservation of the Home. The educated person conserves family ideals.

Homemaking. The educated person is skilled in homemaking.

Democracy in the Home. The educated person maintains democratic family relationships.

III. THE OBJECTIVES OF ECONOMIC EFFICIENCY

Work. The educated producer knows the satisfaction of good workmanship.

Occupational Information. The educated producer understands the requirement and opportunities for various jobs.

Occupational Choice. The educated producer has selected his occupation.

Occupational Efficiency. The educated producer succeeds in his chosen vocation.

Occupational Adjustment. The educated producer maintains and improves his efficiency.

Occupational Appreciation. The educated producer appreciates the social value of his work.

Personal Economics. The educated consumer plans the economics of his own life.

Consumer Judgment. The educated consumer develops standards for guiding his expenditures.

Efficiency in Buying. The educated consumer is an informed and skillful buyer.

Consumer Protection. The educated consumer takes appropriate measures to safeguard his interests.

IV. THE OBJECTIVES OF CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY

Social Justice. The educated citizen is sensitive to the disparities of human circumstance.

Social Activity. The educated citizen acts to correct unsatisfactory conditions.

Social Understanding. The educated citizen seeks to understand social structures and social processes.

Critical Judgment. The educated citizen has defenses against propaganda.

Tolerance. The educated citizen respects honest differences of opinion.

Conservation. The educated citizen has a regard for the nation's resources.

Social Applications of Science. The educated citizen measures scientific advance by its contribution to the general welfare.

World Citizenship. The educated citizen is a cooperating member of the world community.

Law Observance. The educated citizen respects the law.

Economic Literacy. The educated citizen is economically literate.

Political Citizenship. The educated citizen accepts his civic duties.

Devotion to Democracy. The educated citizen acts upon an unswerving loyalty to democratic ideals.

MORAL AND SPIRITUAL VALUES

In order to strengthen and to give further guidance to the schools in their efforts in developing moral and spiritual values, the Educational Policies Commission prepared in 1951 a volume on *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools*.¹⁸ The uncertainty of world conditions after World War II led to much confusion of thought and much questionir 3 about fundamental values and the role of the schools in regard to their development. No society can survive without a moral order. Defining and clarifying the moral and spiritual values which undergird democracy makes it easier to pinpoint the foundation stones upon which our culture rests. The delineation of these values helps to define the societal setting of the schools and to clarify the purposes of education in a democratic society.

An important and continuing purpose of education has been the development of moral and spiritual values. The public schools have a highly significant function in teaching these values. By so doing they create a climate friendly to religion. America was founded by a God-fearing people. Our Constitution and Bill of Rights clearly recognize the existence of religious ideals while at the same time guaranteeing each person freedom to worship God according to the mandate of his own religious convictions. Rejection of a state religion is not the same thing as rejection of religion itself. Since the public schools serve children from approximately 240 different religious bodies it seems apparent that the public schools, like the government of the United States, must stand firmly for freedom of religious belief. Yet education uninspired by moral and spiritual values is directionless. Values unapplied in human behavior are empty.

The public schools can and should emphasize in instruction the moral and spiritual values which are shared by the members of all religious faiths. Such education has profound religious significance. Such education builds for the enduring values which guide progress in a democratic society. The Educational Policies Commission identified 10 such values. In outline form they are as follows:¹⁹

¹⁸ *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools* (Washington, N.E.A., 1951).

¹⁹ Those who desire further details regarding the role of the public school in teaching moral and spiritual values should read the entire volume on *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools*, *op. cit.*, and one or more of the following references: R. Freeman Butts, *The American Tradition in Religion and Education* (Boston, The Beacon Press, 1950); Horace B. Sellars, *The Constitution and Religious Education* (Boston, Christopher Publishing House, 1950); and Virgil Henry, *The Place of Religion in Public Schools* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1950).

1. *Human personality.* The basic moral and spiritual value in American life is the supreme importance of the individual personality.

2. *Moral responsibility.* If the individual personality is supreme, each person should feel responsible for the consequence of his own conduct.

3. *Institutions are the servants of man.* If the individual personality is supreme, institutional arrangements are the servants of mankind.

4. *Common consent.* Mutual consent is better than violence. Voluntary cooperation, contrary to the idea of survival of the fittest, is essential to all forms of life.

5. *Devotion to truth.* The human mind should be liberated by access to information and opinion.

6. *Respect for excellence.* Excellence in mind, character, and creative ability should be fostered.

7. *Moral equality.* All persons should be judged by the same moral standards.

8. *Brotherhood.* The concept of brotherhood should take precedence over selfish interests.

9. *The pursuit of happiness.* Each person should have the greatest possible opportunity for the pursuit of happiness, provided only that such activities do not substantially interfere with the similar opportunities of others.

10. *Spiritual enrichment.* Each person should be offered the emotional and spiritual experiences which transcend the materialistic aspects of life.

THE PURPOSES OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Although the elementary school, the high school, and the college were each originally established for its own particular purpose and with little if any thought of having each of these units contribute its share to a common goal, yet in the process of time something like a common purpose has emerged. This merging of purposes has been brought about by a variety of factors, the most important of which is the extension of educational opportunity to an increasingly larger proportion of the children of each age group. At present a very high percentage of the children who complete the elementary school enter high school. A much larger percentage of those who enter high school complete the secondary program and many more avail themselves of some junior-college experience. The trend toward more common purposes for the various units of the school system is attested to by yearbooks of the Department of Superintendents, now called the American Association of School Administrators.²⁰ Recent years have also witnessed a decided trend toward the belief that education at all levels should concern

²⁰ *The Articulation of the Units of American Education and Five Unifying Factors in American Education*, Yearbooks, American Association of School Administrators of the N.E.A. (1929 and 1931).

itself with the wholesome growth and development of each pupil, thus giving greater communality of focus to elementary and secondary education.

Research in the growth and development of children at all age levels is producing evidence which shows that growth is a continuous process and does not break up into segmented levels that have a one-to-one correspondence with administrative subdivisions of the school system. This is particularly true when growth is viewed from the standpoint of an individual child. Many of the aspects of growth and development are continuous from birth to senility. General reading ability, for example, does not reach its maximum development in the typical person at age 10 or 12 or 20; one's competence in gaining thought from the printed page may develop throughout adult life. One's concepts in science or social studies may likewise broaden and deepen with added reading and experience in adult life.²¹ Certainly the secondary schools and colleges, as well as the elementary schools, are now concerning themselves with development along these lines.

All of these factors which have contributed in bringing about more common purposes for the various segments of the school system cause us to view the functions of the elementary school in new lights. There was a time when most persons in education insisted upon special statements of objectives for each division of the school system. Courses of study, authors of professional treatises on elementary education, and state and national committees did pioneer work in particularizing the unique functions of the elementary school.²² A careful examination of the more recently formulated statements of the special functions of the elementary school reveals their similarity to the general purposes of education in American democracy. Recently some authors, recognizing this similarity, have developed their treatises on elementary education in terms of the contributions which the elementary school can make toward the general purposes of education in this country.²³

If one takes the position, as is done here, that the elementary school does not have unique functions but should promote the wholesome, well-rounded growth and development of children in the directions indicated by the role of an individual in a democratic society, several important issues arise. Where does one go for one's basic orientation as to what the elementary

²¹ For elaboration on these points, see *Child Development and Curriculum*, Thirty-eighth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Bloomington, Ind., Public School Publishing Co., 1939).

²² One of the most thoroughgoing formulations was prepared by the Committee on Elementary Education of the New York Council of Superintendents, entitled *Cardinal Objectives in Elementary Education* (University of the State of New York, 1929).

²³ Illustrations of this approach are to be found in: J. M. Lee and D. M. Lee, *The Child and His Curriculum*, 2d ed. (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1950); and H. L. Caswell and A. W. Foshay, *Education in the Elementary School*, 2d ed. (New York, American Book Co., 1950).

school should endeavor to do? What are the aspects of child growth and development which the elementary school should promote? Does the elementary school have characteristics which differ from those of secondary and higher institutions?

An examination of recent formulations regarding the functions of the elementary school will help to clarify the preceding issues. A Committee of the California School Supervisors Association pointed out that an effective school for young children provides four types of experiences:²⁴ (1) those designed to contribute to maximum physical development and emotional adjustment; (2) those designed to develop social and scientific understandings and attitudes; (3) those designed to increase competence in the use of the tools of communication; and (4) those designed to encourage aesthetic expression and to develop appreciation for the aesthetic expression of others. Foster and Headley say that the aim of the modern kindergarten is to give to the five-year-old child an education which is appropriate to his stage of development, which will be satisfying to him in the present, and which will prepare him for the years immediately following. This statement is then followed by a discussion of the nature and meaning of physical, mental, emotional, and social development.²⁵

In *Education for All American Children* the Educational Policies Commission points out that "the purpose and program of any school depend upon some judgment regarding what is good or bad in the conduct of human affairs. Education is a program of social action toward goals that are based on a scale of values. The good school is one which most completely reflects the highest values of the surrounding society. These systems of ethical values are codified in many ways. They underlie the faith and doctrines of all the great religions. They guide social life in the family and the community." The Commission then points out that the ethical standards to which men give allegiance are relatively permanent and that these values give direction to education. Within this framework the Commission identified the following three goals for elementary schools: (a) a good elementary school, therefore, will help to develop those basic skills and that sturdy independence and initiative which will enable our citizens to attack the problems that face them and to press forward toward ever-improving solutions; (b) a good elementary school, therefore, strives for the discovery and full development of all the humane and constructive talents of each individual; and (c) a good elementary school, therefore, emphasizes social responsibility and the cooperative skills necessary for the progressive improvement of social institutions.²⁶

²⁴ Helen Heffernan, ed., *Guiding the Young Child* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1951), p. 3.

²⁵ Josephine C. Foster and Neith E. Headley, *Education in the Kindergarten*, 2d ed. (New York, American Book Co., 1948), pp. 18-21.

²⁶ *Education for All American Children*, Educational Policies Commission, N.E.A. and the American Association of School Administrators (1948), pp. 2-5.

From the previous discussion it seems clear that the elementary school, like the other units of our system of schools, has its orientation in the society it serves. The objectives of the elementary school lie within the framework of the general purposes of education in American democracy. The general goals toward which the elementary school should strive are the general purposes of education. The statement by the Educational Policies Commission, as previously quoted, appears to be very acceptable for this purpose. The aspects of child growth and development, which identify the lines of potentiality for children, are usually grouped into four categories, namely, physical growth, mental growth and development, emotional development, and social development. The elementary school, then, does not have unique functions. Its uniqueness consists of its curriculum, method, and organization because it is dealing with a particular age group of children. It provides a specialized environment and program uniquely adapted to the maturity levels of elementary-school pupils. It provides experiences which are carefully adjusted to the maturation levels, which are designed to assist the child to grow and develop from where he is at any given time in the direction of the general purposes of education.

A few illustrations may help to clarify the issue. Among the objectives of self-realization one finds items such as these: "the educated person can speak the mother tongue clearly"; "the educated person reads and writes the mother tongue effectively"; and "the educated person appreciates beauty." All of these are items of school concern from kindergarten or primary grades through high school. In similar fashion one can take each of the sub-headings under each of the four broad purposes and show how the school endeavors to assist children's development along each of the lines. Some may question whether the elementary school makes any contribution toward occupational choice, occupational efficiency, and occupational adjustment. This author believes that the answer is in the affirmative. The study of community workers in primary grades makes some elementary contribution to the knowledge about occupations; this acquaintanceship is broadened as other phases of social and economic life are studied in later grades. Whatever progress the child makes toward the objectives of self-realization, of human relationship, and of civic responsibility helps to lay the foundations for occupational efficiency and adjustment.

It should be recognized that the above paragraphs give the clear implication that the schools are an integral part of our society, that the schools can teach democracy, and that the schools have a responsibility for promoting and advancing the welfare and the ideals of a people committed to the democratic way of life.

ELEMENTARY- AND SECONDARY-SCHOOL RELATIONS

The preceding section developed the thesis that the elementary school's function is to serve the general purposes of education and that the elementary and secondary schools have common objectives. The fact that the purposes of elementary and secondary schools reside in the general purposes of education can be strengthened by an examination of a recent statement which endeavored to pinpoint the functions of secondary schools. In 1951 the National Association of Secondary-School Principals published a brochure which projected an educational program for youth of secondary-school age. In this brochure they pointed out that all youth have certain educational needs in common and that all parents can agree that the school should meet these needs, which become the modern goals of education. The 10 goals which they identified are as follows:²⁷

1. All youth need to develop saleable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.

2. All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness and mental health.

3. All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation, and to have an understanding of the nations and peoples of the world.

4. All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.

5. All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.

6. All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of man.

7. All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty, in literature, art, music, and nature.

8. All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful.

9. All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, to be able to live and work cooperatively with others, and to grow in the moral and spiritual values of life.

²⁷ *Planning for American Youth* (Washington, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1951), p. 9.

10. All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.

A careful comparison of these 10 statements with the preceding outline of Purposes of Education in American Democracy will reveal the similarity. The 10 statements by the Secondary-School Principals Association represent a synthesis of the four groups into which the Purposes of Education in American Democracy were organized.

Another angle from which to examine the relationships between elementary and secondary schools is the extent of reorganization of school units. The first separately organized junior high schools were established in 1909. By 1948, 71 per cent of 1372 city school systems were using a pattern of organization which included a junior high school. Since one of the unique functions of the junior high school is to serve as a connecting and articulating agent between the elementary school and the senior high school, the implication for a closely knit 12-grade program is clear.

Student enrollment is another factor which ties the several units of a school system together. At one time the completion of the elementary school was all the formal schooling deemed necessary, except for the few students who were headed for the professions. Now the compulsory school attendance laws in most states require children to stay in school until age 16; in some states the requirement is to age 18. Also, the popular conception of the amount of schooling needed has changed to include the secondary school. As a result of these several factors the large majority of pupils remain in school through the ninth or tenth grade. In many communities all the children of high-school age are actually in attendance and the great majority remain until they have completed the secondary school. In reality the high school has now been added to the elementary school and the two units now compose the school for "all the children of all the people."

Since the elementary and the secondary schools have come to have common goals and together form a single unified program of development for children and youth, the problems of articulation become more important than ever. There is no longer any point in trying to determine at what specific point (age of pupil, grade level, or stage of development) the elementary school ends and the secondary school begins. It is one continuous program for children's education, divided into school units for convenience and economy of administration. These units (the elementary school, the junior high school, and the senior high school, or the elementary school and the secondary school), joined end to end, are designed to provide articulated progression for the child from the time he is in need of schooling until approximately age 17 or 18, at which time some discontinue formal schooling, whereas others continue in the various forms of post-high-school education.

In order that the child may be assured of well-articulated progress through the several units of the school system, many aspects of school prac-

tice must be handled in such a way that there is continuity and consistency, though not necessarily uniformity throughout the 12-grade program. Three of these aspects will be discussed here. The first of them is curriculum-planning and curriculum policies. The over-all philosophy for the school system should be a 12-grade philosophy which recognizes the unity of purpose and the concern for all children of the several school units. The basic design of the curriculum and the procedures for implementing the objectives should have sufficient similarity in the several units so that the details for a particular unit can be recognized as having a common base. Broad fields, such as the language arts, the social studies, science studies, and so forth, should be developed by committees consisting of representatives from each unit. Learning activities and grade placement of materials should be decided in terms of the abilities and maturity of pupils rather than on the basis of arbitrarily allocated segments of content deemed essential preparation for prescribed content in subsequent grades or courses. The entire curriculum should be designed so that at each age level the teachers and the school are free and equipped to meet the varying needs of pupils.

Provisions for meeting individual differences in pupils is another major articulation problem. Studies in mental hygiene and pupil adjustment have shown that children are happier, make better progress, and manifest fewer maladjustment problems when they are grouped in approximate age-peer groups. Elementary schools are recognizing these factors more and more. Consequently nonpromotion is being reduced to a minimum and children's varying academic needs are being met within each grade by adaptations in curriculum, method, and materials. The result is extensive differentiation of instruction and expected outcomes. Hence the groups that leave the elementary school to enter the secondary school reveal wide variation in ability and proficiency in the academic fields. If the child's progress is to be well-articulated the secondary school must be equipped to care for children with widely different interests, maturity, academic preparation, and ultimate educational objectives. A single array of required courses for all pupils will not suffice. There must be differentiated courses or differentiated assignments and achievement standards within each subject field as well as a variety of electives to meet various pupil interests. Such curricular adaptation presents a major problem to secondary schools, especially the smaller ones in which the size of faculty and student body is too limited to offer a large variety of courses. Yet it is a problem that must be faced as realistically as possible in each secondary school if a well-articulated 12-grade program that serves all children and youth is to prevail.

A unified 12-grade philosophy for the school system and suitable curricular provisions for all children constitute the educational environment in which appropriately coordinated promotion policies and practices can be developed. If the elementary school, or the elementary school and the junior

high school, give real concern for children's social and emotional as well as academic development, promotional policies will be such as to keep children moving forward from grade to grade in reasonably homogeneous age and maturity groups. Progress in the academic fields will be appraised and reported on an individual rather than a class or grade standard basis. Criteria for grouping and marking will be applied in ways which are consistent with the basic philosophy of the program. If such policies and procedures are to succeed there must be comparably consistent practices in the senior high school. In other words, policies and procedures regarding grouping, promotion, and marking must have coherence and consistency on a 12-grade basis.

An essential element in the basic philosophy which gives guidance to the total school program is the viewpoint held with reference to minimum essentials. There is no agreement on what the minimum essentials are, yet there is widespread acceptance of a mythical notion that the schools are responsible for seeing to it that every youngster masters the minimum essentials before he receives a diploma. The temptation is to identify them with the purposes of education. In other words, minimum essentials and the purposes of education become synonymous concepts. Whenever this coincidence exists, it places teachers in an impossible position. It is a well-established fact that children differ in ability and other factors which make it impossible for all to achieve equal statures in reading, mathematics, science, or any of the other subject fields. Yet teachers feel obligated to bring about equal levels of attainment in whatever definition has been given to minimum essentials. The school thus endeavors to bring all pupils up to arbitrarily established minimum levels of achievement, when such development is clearly impossible for a sizable proportion of them.

The preceding example is merely one illustration of the predicaments which arise when minimum essentials and purposes of education are used as synonymous concepts. Usually the concept of minimum essentials is administered only with reference to the academic fields, whereas every thinking person would place character and citizenship at or near the top of a list of the fundamentals of a good education. Under the minimum essentials concept, schools would endeavor to obtain minimum uniformity rather than placing much stress upon the fullest development of each pupil in accordance with his ability and aptitudes. The purposes of education should be used as directional goals to identify the kinds of values we seek for children but not as minimum essentials that teachers are expected to establish to a prescribed degree in each child. Sometimes this difference in viewpoint is described as the child development versus the minimum essentials concept. Whatever position a school system takes on the issue has much to do with elementary-school and secondary-school relations. Good articulation cannot prevail in a school system in which the elementary school operates under one concept and the secondary school under a different one. The kinds of cumulative records gathered on pupils and their use in

the different units in the school system will depend largely upon the extent to which the several aspects of articulation have been handled.

URBAN AND RURAL RELATIONS

Any comprehensive view of elementary education in the United States must include consideration of the children living in the rural-farm and rural-nonfarm areas. In Chapter I it was pointed out that in 1950, 36.3 per cent of the U. S. population lived in rural areas. Data on the number of one-, two-, and three-teacher schools have been presented in an earlier paragraph. In 1948 there were approximately 95,000 local school districts in this country. It was estimated that about 88 per cent of these had fewer than 10 teachers. Out of 67,000 districts in 35 states for which detailed reports were available, 13,000 reported no teachers (all pupils presumably being transported to other districts); 34,000 reported 1 teacher; and 12,000 reported at least 2 but fewer than 10 teachers. The percentage that one-teacher schools were of all elementary schools in 1948 ranged from 7.3 in Massachusetts, 7.7 in Utah, and 8.4 in Rhode Island to 92.4 in North Dakota, 96.2 in South Dakota, and 96.9 in Iowa. Of the estimated 22,408 high schools in the United States in 1948, 16.8 per cent had fewer than 50 pupils, 42 per cent had fewer than 100 pupils, and only 21 per cent had 300 or more pupils. It is clear, therefore, that elementary education in small schools, particularly those in rural areas, is a major segment of the total field of elementary education.

The importance of the educational problems of rural areas becomes more realistic as one examines population and finance data. The rural population has a higher birth rate. Works and Lesser have calculated reproduction rates for various population groups. A reproduction rate of one means that the group is reproducing itself at such a rate that its numbers remain stationary; a rate lower than one means that the group is not reproducing itself; while a rate greater than one means that the group will increase in numbers. Some of the reproduction rates which they have calculated are: United States (urban and rural), 1.09; urban (total), .87; cities of 500,000, and over, .78; cities of 250,000 to 500,000, .76; cities 2500 to 25,000, 1.00; rural (total), 1.47; rural-nonfarm, 1.33; rural-farm, 1.62.²⁸ The significance of these differences in birth rates is seen more clearly as one studies the ratio of children to be educated to the adult population. The number of children 5-17 years of age per 1000 adults 20-64 years of age is 675 for the rural-farm group, 495 for the rural-nonfarm group, 377 for the total urban group, and only 348 for cities of 100,000 and over.²⁹ This heavier child-rearing load in rural areas is augmented by a heavier load in old-age dependency

²⁸ G. A. Works and S. O. Lesser, *Rural American Today* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1942), p. 2.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

among rural people. The number of dependents aged 65 and over per 1000 adults 20-64 years of age ranges from 85 for the urban centers to 108 for the rural-farm group.

The financial counterpart of the population load presents further discrepancies. Studies have shown that the financial ability of most rural school districts is less than that of most urban districts.³⁰ Differences in per capita income are in part responsible for other conditions which surround children in rural areas. In 1947 only 21 per cent of farm homes were equipped with indoor plumbing as compared to 75 per cent of the homes in urban areas. Public and private personnel and services for health care are frequently meager in rural areas. In 1950, 715 counties (1 out of every 4) were without full-time public health nursing service. Farm tenancy has increased. In some states nearly 70 per cent of all farmers are tenants. Settlement of estates has tended to transfer ownership of farm land to urban dwellers. When the farmer and his wife grow old and die, the estate is divided among the children, some of whom have moved to the city.

The absence of new farms to be homesteaded, the decreasing feasibility of further subdividing existing farms, the low incomes of farmers, the higher birth rate in rural areas, plus numerous other related factors give simple evidence of the fact that the surplus of rural population will continue to migrate to the cities where they are needed to fill the places left vacant because of the lower reproductive rate in the cities. It is estimated that by 1955 four-fifths of the population increase during the following 15-year period will come from rural areas. Education, therefore, can no longer be viewed as urban and rural but rather as a national problem in which both urban *and* rural have a mutually interdependent interest.

What is the meaning of all this for elementary education? Several generalizations seem warranted. Elementary education encompasses *all* children who are attending elementary schools regardless of the size or the geographical location of the school. There is no justification for an opinion that elementary education is found only in urban centers and that rural education is something unique. The interdependence of urban and rural people applies to education as much as to economic and political life. City folk cannot ignore the educational needs of rural children, especially in view of the fact that a good proportion of the cities' voters and citizens will have been reared and educated in rural places. More and more, Americans are becoming a unified people. The large amount of travel made possible by easy means of transportation is rapidly eliminating sectionalism. City people are seeking homes in the country and the surplus country population is continuing to migrate to the cities. Some large industries are decentralizing the location of manufacturing plants. The entire nation is responsible for the education of all the children.

It seems clear that our ideals for our children and the general purposes

³⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 10-11.

of elementary education are similar for urban and rural children. The charter for rural education asks the same values and opportunities for rural as for urban children. Modern education stresses the importance of orienting instruction to the experience backgrounds of children. This should be done in any school. Hence elementary schools in rural areas should utilize children's acquaintance with the rural environment, the resources of the rural setting, and the problems of everyday living in the open country to make learning dynamic and realistic. Such differentiation in materials and activities does not imply or call for differences in objectives. Rural schools should not make the mistake of copying courses of study from city schools on the mistaken notion that elementary-school programs should be identical because the children will later attend a city high school or live in a city. Preparing rural children to live successfully in a rural or city environment can be done more effectively by means other than copying city courses of study.

THE FUNCTION OF TEACHING

The function of teaching is to guide the experiences and the educative growth of children in the direction of the accepted purposes of elementary education. In order to do this in a realistic way one needs to see human nature and the social order as they are and also to have clear conceptions of human nature and society at their best or as they might exist under ideal conditions. The teacher must determine the characteristics of the children (including their community backgrounds), the nature of the educative process, the characteristics of society as it is and as it desires to become, and the purposes of the school. The teacher then brings all of these factors into such relationships by way of the school program that children experience the desired educative growth and development.

THE ROLE OF ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

All that has been said so far in this chapter was designed to convey a broad picture of the scope of elementary education, the needs and characteristics of the children served by elementary schools, and our goals for our children in a society that is striving for the democratic ideal. An effort was made to depict the setting and the task. This is the point at which the professional staff of the school, together with such assistance as can be secured from children and citizens, must take hold of the problem and create a school in which the desired ends can be achieved. The school must be one in which children can live and work happily, in which teachers who know and understand children can put modern concepts of curriculum and method into full fruition, and in which all types of resources for learning can be used in the most valuable ways. It is the role of organization and

administration to create the structured setting and the operating procedures and their continued effective operation and adjustment so that excellent schooling for children may take place. One of the major functions of the succeeding chapters is to clarify this role.

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THE CURRICULUM of the elementary school consists of the sum total of educative experiences of children during their sojourn in the first unit of the educational system. The curriculum may be considered as the vehicle whereby and through which we hope to enable children to achieve the objectives of elementary education. The curriculum, therefore, is not merely a course of study, an organized program of studies, or a question of subject matter. It is more inclusive than any of these items. It represents all of the activities transpiring in school life through which a child learns. The various studies, organized activities, both curricular and extracurricular, and the entire social life and atmosphere of the school find their respective places in the curriculum. Each is designed to make its contribution toward the attainment of the ultimate goals of education.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE CURRICULUM

The curriculum, as the heart of the school, is the most important aspect of the elementary school. It is the curriculum which gives expression in concrete form to the educational theories and policies which govern elementary education in a given community. Whatever the accepted objectives of elementary education may be, the degree to which they are attained and the manner in which they are attained are determined in large measure by the curriculum and the educational theories which it represents. It is entirely within reason to believe that many present-day curricula are entirely out of harmony with modern objectives of elementary education, and hence make it relatively impossible for children to attain the goals which have been assigned to the elementary school of the twentieth century.

Additional testimony regarding the importance of the curriculum arises out of the current scene of public and professional concern for education. The number of articles on education in lay journals, the number of lay organizations that have developed in recent years concerned with the promotion or destruction of public education, and the agitation of local lay groups about one or more phases of current school programs are ample testimony of a widespread lay interest in what the schools teach and how well it is

done. The public is restless and deeply interested in school curricula, perhaps reflecting an unworded recognition of the need for curriculum change.

From the educator's standpoint there is equal restlessness about present school curricula. It is doubtful whether any previous period in our history has produced a greater volume and variety of books and articles in professional journals on curriculum revision than the past decade. Certainly at no previous time have as many professional organizations or as many local faculty groups engaged themselves in curriculum revision activities. Unless the curriculum were important all this interest and activity would not prevail. Neither would the interest be so widespread if there were not general recognition of the need for curriculum revision. The two main sources impelling curriculum change are treated in the next two sections.

CULTURAL CHANGES THAT IMPEL CURRICULUM CHANGE

The culture of the people of the United States, like all cultures that have been affected by science and technology, is in a period of fundamental change. The United States is in a transition period from a laissez faire to an interdependent society. This transition is happening during a period when interdependence among the nations of the world is progressing at an amazingly increased rate. The United States is currently involved in discovering for itself a new role in the one-world concept, while at the same time endeavoring to readjust and revise its philosophy and practices to an increasingly interdependent internal culture. Some of the main cultural changes which characterize this transition are noted briefly in the paragraphs which ensue.¹

Industrialization has altered the traditional pattern and conception of our economy. In 1820, 71.8 per cent of the United States labor force was employed in agricultural pursuits. This percentage had been reduced to 15 by 1950. Trade, transportation, clerical, and selling occupations engaged only 10.8 per cent of our gainfully employed in 1870; by 1940 this percentage had shifted to 30. The pattern of individual enterprise has changed radically. In 1820 approximately 80 per cent of the people were self-employed; today

¹ Space cannot be given in this book for an extended discussion of these changes. Those interested in a broader treatment should consult such sources as: B. Othanel Smith, William O. Stanley, and J. Harlan Shores, *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development*, Part 1 (Yonkers, N. Y., World Book Co., 1950); Roland C. Faunce and Nelson L. Bossing, *Developing the Core Curriculum* (New York, Prentice-Hall, 1951), Ch. 2; Florence B. Stratemeyer, Hamden L. Forkner, Margaret G. McKim, and associates, *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947), Ch. 2; J. Minor Gwynn, *Curriculum Principles and Social Trends*, rev. ed. (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1950), Ch. 4; Pickens E. Harris, *The Curriculum and Cultural Change*, Part 2 (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937); Newton Edwards and Herman G. Richey, *The School in the American Social Order*, Part 3 (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1947).

only 15 per cent, including those in agriculture and the professions, are working for themselves. The role of individual enterprise in the total economy has diminished significantly. By 1937 all communications, electric light, power, and gas production was carried on by corporate enterprise. In addition, 96 per cent of all mining, 92 per cent of all manufacturing, 89 per cent of all transportation, and 84 per cent of all the financial business was in the hands of corporations. These changes have resulted in rather extensive divorce of ownership and control. Ownership is now largely in the form of stocks and bonds. Although this ownership is distributed widely, the individual stock or bond holder has little voice in the control and management of the corporations. Most people now work for someone else.

Important population changes have taken place. There is a reduction in the proportion of workers engaged in the production of material goods and an increase in the proportion engaged in the service occupations. There has been a gradual increase in the age at which youth is admitted to the major channels of gainful employment. If youth does not remain in school there is not much for it to do until age 18 or over. Few young people can learn their fathers' occupation by working with their fathers. By 1950, 64 per cent of the people lived in urban centers. In 1850 cities like Cleveland, Detroit, and Los Angeles were quite small; their populations were 17,034, 21,019, and 1610, respectively. By 1950 each of these three cities had grown to about two million or more. As medical science continues to add to the longevity of life the proportion of older people to younger will increase. The increasing proportion of older people, plus the tendency toward lower retirement ages in certain occupations, will change the home conditions under which children are reared and will increase the demands which old age pensions will make upon public funds.

The pattern of family life is changing noticeably as a result of the changes in industry, occupations, and the composition of the family group. Most fathers work away from the home, usually leaving early in the morning and coming home at night or working on night shifts. More mothers are gainfully employed away from home. More people are living in apartment houses or small homes that have inadequate play space for children. Some apartment houses will not accept tenants with children. The family produces very little, if any, of the products it consumes. What children do learn about the quality of materials has to be learned by helping mother shop rather than by helping her to produce or process foods or cook or sew. Canned foods and ready-made clothes have reduced home cooking and sewing to a minimum. Increased use of mechanical devices in the home has reduced children's role in homemaking activities. The home's opportunities for religious, moral, and family life education have changed appreciably. The increasing divorce rate reached a peak in 1946; in that year there was 1 divorce for each 3.7 marriages.

Industrialization has brought increased time for leisure. The 12-hour day

has been reduced to eight and even to six in a few industries. The 60- and 48-hour week has been reduced to 44, or 40, and in some instances to as little as 35. The increasing attendance at all types of athletic sports and the increased use of parks and playgrounds are evidences of the fact that people have had more time for leisure. No doubt diversification of leisure time pursuits has brought about a decrease in the family type of recreation. What new changes in recreation and family life will be brought by television remain to be determined as television assumes the universality which the radio now enjoys. Actually the percentage of total personal expenditures which went for recreation as a whole has not varied much over the past two decades. In 1929, the share spent for recreation was 5.5 per cent; from 1930 to 1949 the ratio ranged from 4.7 to 5.9; in 1950 it was 5.8 per cent.²

The depletion of natural resources has changed our culture in many ways and promises to cause many more changes. Soil erosion, diminishing forests, and diminishing mineral, gas, and oil reserves are causing serious shifts in our economy. Home owning is becoming more expensive, farm land is becoming less fertile, minerals are becoming more precious—all at a time when the economy on the home front and world events are commanding more rather than less from nature's storehouse.

The changing world economy makes the interdependence of all peoples of the world an extremely realistic concept. This one-world interdependence makes the preservation of peace and the development of world unity one of our greatest problems. The cultural and industrial development of the countries of the world is very uneven. Yet the development of the resources of every country is necessary for a full and free flow of commerce, education, and cultural benefits. Backwardness in one country may jeopardize progress in all others. But how can countries with advanced education and industrial progress help the backward areas without violating their sovereignty? Actually the whole world is in transition, with many conflicting ideologies striving for recognition. In what way can school curricula give guidance to children and youth in a world of uncertainty?

EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS THAT IMPEL CURRICULUM CHANGE

During the past 50 years, while cultural changes have been taking place at an accelerated rate, there have been significant developments within the field of education itself. Some of these intra-profession developments have much to do with the curriculum revision movement. The higher average level of preparation now possessed by the members of the profession make those members much better qualified to engage in curriculum rethinking. Advancements in the faculties and facilities of teacher-preparation institu-

² *Cleveland Trust Company Business Bulletin*, Vol. 32, No. 11 (November 11, 1951), p. 3.

tions has given these institutions the equipment needed for discharging their roles in the movement of keeping schools abreast of the times.

Better qualified folks in all types of educational positions have caused, and at the same time made possible, an expanding interest in research. The latter interest has led to increases in the funds made available for research. Although funds for research in education are still pitifully meager, such monies as have been available have stimulated research and frontier thinking in all phases of education. Most of the internal changes in education itself have sprung more or less from the impetus given by research.

No period in the history of American education has witnessed the intensive study of educational problems by the profession itself as has the period since 1915. General research in the curriculum has been particularly extensive since 1940. A definite trend of the times is large-scale curriculum projects sponsored by various types of agencies and carried forward through the participation of cooperating schools in different parts of the country. Examples of such projects are: (a) the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation study in applied economics which has a "public schools" area³ and a "college" area;⁴ (b) the American Council on Education project on intergroup relations; (c) the curriculum program of the National Council of Teachers of English;⁵ and (d) the work of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation.⁶ Every new contribution which research brings, whether it pertain to individual differences, the psychology of learning, instruction or materials in a subject area, or some other phase of education, has a general bearing on the curriculum.

The basic curriculum issues opened up by the newer psychology had many ramifications. Harris identified eight of these supplementary developments.⁷ There emerged the demand for participation on the part of the pupil; he was not only to learn about society, but was to do so by active participation in realistic enterprises. Knowledge was no longer to be a thing apart from conduct; it was to become an affair of conduct itself; it was to be functional. To regard knowledge as a function of behavior gave genuine

³ Harold F. Clark, "Food, Clothing, and Shelter: the Sloan Experiments," *Clearing House*, Vol. 19 (March, 1945), pp. 418-419; Clare M. Olson and Norman D. Fletcher, *Learn and Live* (New York, Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, 1946); Maurice F. Seay, *Sloan Experiment in Kentucky: the Second Progress Report of an Experiment in Applied Economics*, Bureau of School Service Bulletin, Vol. 16, No. 4 (Lexington, University of Kentucky, 1944).

⁴ Edward S. Evenden, *Progress Report on the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation Curriculum Study of Applied Economics Made for the Committee on Standards and Surveys of the American Association of Teachers Colleges*, Twenty-fourth Yearbook (Oneonta, N. Y., The American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1945).

⁵ Dora V. Smith and Porter G. Perrin, *An Initial Statement of Platform for the Curriculum Commission of the National Council of Teachers of English* (Washington, The National Council of Teachers of English of the N.E.A., 1947).

⁶ Hollis L. Caswell and associates, *Curriculum Improvement in Public School Systems* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950).

⁷ Harris, *op. cit.*, Ch. 2.

meaning to the place of "activities" in education. There thus evolved a new notion of the relation of character to conduct. If there were no separation of knowledge from behavior itself, then mere information about desirable conduct would not necessarily produce such conduct. Teaching method became revealed in new light; it was no longer a technique for training the faculties of the mind but rather a way of guiding children's experiences toward desirable ends. These desirable ends included not only adjustment to present society but also a deliberate effort to improve society. Only a new type of citizen, one who had acquired habits and skills for critical thinking and who had an experimental attitude, could function satisfactorily under such challenges.

Research in child growth and development is gradually accumulating a sufficient body of data so that reasonably reliable generalizations can be formulated on a number of aspects of child life. These research contributions have aided greatly in exploding many notions previously considered sound and in bringing to the fore many previously overlooked factors about the child in the educative process. As a result school curricula are becoming much more realistic about what children need in their educational journey and what seems appropriate and within children's capabilities at various age levels. Coupled with the research in child development are the clearer insights into the nature of the educative process. "Learning to do by doing," "the whole child," "symmetrical growth," "the organism as a whole," "pupil purposes," "teacher-pupil planning," and many other catch phrases have deeper and clearer meanings than they had even a few years ago.

The decade of the 1930's will go down in educational history as a period of unparalleled effort, rethinking, and clarification of the purposes of education in a democratic society. The depression years of the 1930's, followed by World War II, and then followed by the post-war world uncertainty, the conflict of ideologies, the war in Korea, and other potential world-upsetting incidents left the people of the world uncertain about their moorings and their future, worried about themselves and their children, and jittery and uncertain about the role which they wished education to serve. Educators were alert to the curriculum changes implied by cultural changes but the uncertainty, insecurity, and straw-grasping tendency of a worried humanity made it difficult to keep vision clear and even more difficult to make progress in directions which otherwise would have seemed logical to all concerned.

THE FOCI OF THE CURRICULUM REVISION PROBLEM

Educators who are alert to the cultural changes which impinge upon the curriculum and the developments in education itself are aware of the fact that most existing elementary-school curricula fall short in several ways of

what a good elementary-school program of this day and age could be. Furthermore, they are eager to revise curricula at as rapid a rate as good judgment would indicate. The crux of the problem seems to center in four major issues. The first of these is the task of translating the purposes of education into curriculum practices. The objectives of elementary education have been fairly broad for the past century or more, but school curricula have remained rather narrow in that most of the scheduled time of the school day has been devoted to the subjects of study, when in reality the subjects as usually taught do not contain within themselves enough educational values to enable children to make progress toward all the goals sought by schools. The school curriculum was out of gear with the purposes of education in that the curriculum served only a portion of those objectives. Changes in the culture tend to broaden the role of schools still further. The changed role of the school will create further discrepancies between objectives and curricula unless curricula are revised sufficiently to serve all the important goals.

The second task is that of designing a curriculum that will encourage and secure methods of teaching which insure effective learning. There is widespread acceptance and research support for the unit method of organizing teaching-learning situations. Educational theory and research look with particular favor upon the merits of experience units. There is also an accumulating body of research evidence to support the thesis that basic skills, especially those in the language arts, are learned more effectively when instruction pertaining thereto is integrated with instruction in the content subjects. Yet school curricula continue to be organized into many separate subjects with short daily periods, thus making it impossible for teachers to make effective use of the best known ways of working with children. Harmony needs to be achieved between curriculum content and arrangement *and* good ways of working with children, including modern concepts of how best to organize teaching-learning situations.

The third task is one of envisioning school curricula in sufficiently broad terms to include a repertoire of activities sufficiently varied to enable children to achieve development in all of the desired directions. Much stress is being placed upon mental health and personality integration, yet we know very little about the kinds of school activities that would be most useful for this purpose. Much stress is also being placed upon more adequate programs for effective intergroup and interpersonal relations. New emphases in citizenship education call for virile and realistic school programs. But how are these new goals to be achieved? Can the usual subjects of study and the studying of textbooks be expected to do the job? What new kinds of activities should become a part of the school curriculum? What changes must be made in time allotments and in daily schedules if the content of the curriculum is to be broad enough to secure all the accepted objectives of the school?

The fourth task is one of harmonizing an already overcrowded curriculum with demands for new activities required to serve new or revised objectives. In Chapter 1 the author pointed out that the number of subjects or areas of special instructional emphasis had increased from 2 prior to 1800 to 24 by 1945. In addition, most elementary schools sponsor one or more co-curricular activities. A recent survey showed that there were 42 different activities which were classified by one or more schools as co-curricular.⁸ The scope of adult-interest activities and their inroads on teaching time were discussed in Chapter 1.

As one summarizes the elements of subjects and areas of special instructional emphasis, co-curricular activities, and adult-interest activities, one becomes impressed and overwhelmed with the vast array of different things that have been crowded into the elementary-school curriculum. The result is that teachers have so many things to attend to that they are constantly pressed for time. They are forced to dash from pillar to post throughout the school day, hurrying children from one activity to another. There isn't time to stop long enough at any one point for thoughtful teaching and learning. The school day is chopped into too many short periods. Teachers find that they must stay in a mad dash to keep up with all the things that must be crowded into each day.

Although the following take-off on a troubled teacher is overdrawn and humorous, it carries a point that should become of greater concern to all administrators.

THE TEACHERS' OWN SECOND FRONT: A PARABLE⁹

It came to pass in those days, in the days of the Great War upon the Hitlerites, that the school teacher said unto herself, "Behold, this is Tuesday, which being interpreted is War Stamp Day."

And she took her seat at her desk and laid thereon her War Stamp record book which was provided by the principal, and then she saith unto her students which were of tender years, "Lo, it is War Stamp Day, and those students which peradventure have brought no money for War Stamps may go to their seats forthwith. Neither will I take any milk money nor any lunch money nor any picture money. Nay, I will not even take any Junior Red Cross money, nor any cans of peas for the hospital, until all the War Stamp money be counted and delivered unto the principal."

Therefore did she set out the ice cream box with the slit in the top to hold the moneys and the students did crowd about her with many pennies and nickels which they set about steadfastly to drop under the desk, and the teacher set down duly in her book what each student had bought.

But it happened that some of the students who had no War Stamp money, but had milk money, did not go straightway to their seats, but lingered to see

⁸ Henry J. Otto, *Organizational and Administrative Practices in Elementary Schools in the United States*, University of Texas Publication No. 4544 (Austin, University of Texas, 1945), p. 10.

⁹ Author and source unknown.

the counting of the War Stamps. And suddenly the teacher did find upon her desk a penny, and when she found that it did not make balance with the rest, she inquired in a loud voice, "Whose penny is this?" And a student saith in a small voice, "It is my milk money."

Then the teacher lifted up her voice and cried, "Did I not tell the milk children to take their seats? Verily, you will get me all mixed up!"

Where Goeth the Pennies

Then the door did open and the hot lunch messenger from above did enter. So therefore the teacher had to rescind her order and call in humble voice to the children who wanted lunch tickets. And some of the War Stamp children joined with them and also bought hot lunches. But they were too young to know for a surety whether their pennies should go to the messenger or to the lady in the cafeteria, or indeed to their teacher. And there was much argument among them.

Now when the hot lunches had departed, the teacher finished with the War Stamps, and did call the children to gather about her with milk pennies, and each child put down a penny. And lo, a certain child said he had already paid for his milk, but the teacher believed him not, because she had set down a zero against his name, and likewise because he first said he gave her a penny and then a nickel, and last year she had his brother who likewise did make false witness about money.

But nevertheless, the teacher, being weak, did pay for his milk because he was thin-faced, and the door opened and a big brother did come in with 95 cents for a picture (for they had all had their pictures taken in that school) but not precisely 95 cents was in the envelope, because it was a \$2 bill and the wise mother had written thereon, "The change of this for milk money." Moreover the big brother wished 95 cents back again for his own picture, neither did he want a dollar bill, because he wished a nickel for his upper grade milk.

Chaos Approacheth

Then the teacher took out her own pocketbook and made change and then she was utterly lost, because the War Stamp money came out a dollar too much, notwithstanding all the picture money under the blotter.

And behold, as the children drank their milk which had arrived, a boy said, "You have not heard my reading class read." And he spoke the truth for the teacher had not heard any classes at all. And another said (albeit she first raised up her hand), "Behold, I have lost my lunch ticket." And the teacher said (albeit not aloud), "Behold, I have lost my mind." But to the child she said (and she did not even look in that direction) "Verily, thou shalt find your ticket right under your desk," for that was the place it always was at that hour.

And lo, as the reading class assembled, the bell rang for recess, and the teacher was glad, and she cried in a loud voice, "Do not run! Neither push nor strike any of your little friends, but get you forthwith into your ski pants even unto the zippers down the legs, and get into line. And moreover do not get into any trouble on the playground for verily, I am going to lie down in the Teachers' Room."

Sayeth the Editor

(Yea verily, this distraught and anonymous teacher doth speak with much truth, albeit amusingly, a good and sufficient reason for printing her words. Ye editor doth think, however, that Tuesday, being interpreted War Stamp day,

could weigh less heavily on her fevered brow. Older pupils, those with a modicum of know-how, forsooth, might easily apply what the school doth seek to teach them about the ways of men, by managing the sale and recording the exchanges of moneys for War Stamps.

Thus the teacher would be sufficiently untroubled to dwell upon the virtues of savings to help the Nation in its war upon the Hitlerites and similar ilk. She could find time for lessons in reading, writing, and arithmetic that would show the reasons for War Savings. These ideas forthwith would enter into the home, spreading like ripples on a pond, a virtue unto itself.—Ed.)

As school faculties move forward in their efforts to develop sane, leisurely curricula that will serve current educational goals they will need to develop clear-cut concepts and policies regarding a number of issues. The remainder of this chapter attempts to identify some of these issues.

THE BASIC ORIENTATION OF THE CURRICULUM

One of the first issues facing elementary-school workers interested in curriculum revision is a thorough clarification of what the school should do for children. The usual outline of objectives is somewhat general and leaves much leeway of interpretation. Although the purposes of education as set forth by the Educational Policies Commission are stated in terms of conduct proficiencies, many persons assume that proficiency in all types of conduct situations can be achieved satisfactorily through a study of books and subject matter. The curriculum is thus conceived in terms of subjects to be studied with only a minimum sprinkling of activities through which children could practice the application of desirable learnings. Under such a concept the curriculum rests heavily upon the acquisition of knowledge and skill in the hope that the children will make the transfer to life situations. Schools which rest their case primarily in studying subject matter claim that they serve as broad a list of objectives as schools which conceive of the curriculum in terms of a broad array of activities which give children opportunity to practice desired behaviors as well as to study about them.

Some curricula are oriented in a narrow concept of skills and knowledge. Skills are defined primarily as skills in the three R's. There is little recognition of the fact that there are also many skills in interpersonal and intergroup relations, in leadership roles, in play and other physical activities, in the artistic realms, and in many other areas that might be named. Knowledge is interpreted to consist primarily of the information found in basal texts, giving little recognition to the many supplementary areas of information essential for meeting everyday situations. A curriculum which embodies the narrow concept of skills and knowledge will tend to consist largely of traditional subjects taught in the usual assign-study-recite-test method.

Curricula which rest their faith primarily in studying subjects from basal texts are likely to produce a school program in which children learn mostly

about the past. The current problems of everyday living in which children are involved will receive little attention. The issue thus becomes one of whether the school's primary function is to help children learn about the past or to help children become well oriented, inducted, and adjusted to the current on-going culture so that children may be more intelligent about, understanding of, and constructively effective in resolving current problems. Shall the curriculum aim at learning about the past and things as they are or shall the curriculum be truly functional in helping children to do better the worthwhile things which they are doing or ought to be doing? Shall the curriculum be oriented to yesterday or to tomorrow?

The several issues previously named lead to the question of child interest and needs versus societal needs. Shall it be a child-centered or a society-centered curriculum? The child-centered approach has been variously called an activity, project, or experience curriculum. In basic theory these three seem to be identical so there is no reason for not using the original title which was "activity curriculum." The primary principle of the activity curriculum is that the interests and purposes of children determine the educational program. The selection and planning of activities is done cooperatively by teacher and pupils. Problem-solving is the dominant method. Current problems of living vital to children will find a dominant place in an activity curriculum. Space in this book will not permit an extended discussion of the activity curriculum but a few pertinent observations are in order.¹⁰ Although few schools have their curricula oriented solely in children's interests and needs, no school can afford to ignore children's interests and problems in curriculum planning. Instruction will not be very effective unless it is oriented thoroughly and sanely to the interests, motivations, drives, and maturation levels of children. Interest, effort, and learning are so closely associated that to ignore these in an instructional program is to build on false premises. An associated issue is whether the curriculum is broadly oriented to serve children's physical, social, and emotional develop-

¹⁰ Those who desire a fuller discussion of the activity curriculum should examine: B. Othanel Smith, William O. Stanley, and J. Harlan Shores, *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development* (Yonkers, N. Y., World Book Co., 1950), Chs. 18 and 19; John Dewey, *The School and Society* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1900), Ch. 2; Katherine C. Mayhew and Anna C. Edwards, *The Dewey School* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936); J. L. Meriam, *Child Life and the Curriculum* (Yonkers, N. Y., World Book Co., 1921); Ellsworth Collings, *An Experiment with a Project Curriculum* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1923); Lois Coffey Mossman, *The Activity Concept* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1939); National Society for the Study of Education, *The Activity Movement*, Thirty-third Yearbook, Part II (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1934); L. T. Hopkins, *Interaction: The Democratic Process* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1941); William H. Burton, *The Guidance of Learning Activities*, 2d ed. (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1952), pp. 321-335 and Chs. 12, 13, and 14; Arthur T. Jersild and Ruth J. Tasch, *Children's Interests and What They Suggest for Education* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949).

ment as well as the intellectual. Curricula that are not child-centered to a large degree are apt to provide only for intellectual development. Thus the issue about the child-centeredness of the curriculum is related to the breadth of interpretation given to the purposes of education.

A society-centered curriculum holds that the objectives of education are primarily social, i.e., to prepare the individual to live in a certain kind of society. Although the interests of children should not be wholly neglected, these interests are not of primary importance. The essential thing is that the child shall become the kind of person desired by society. Discipline and the mastery of a curriculum based almost exclusively on social rather than individual objectives are characteristic features of a society-centered program. Acceptance of the status quo and the induction of children into the accepted ways of the present culture result largely in curricula which outline what the child should know and think and how he should feel, and leave little room for the full development of individual talents and capacities, originality, and initiative. In its true form the society-centered curriculum endeavors to mold the child according to preconceived ends rather than to develop the child to the full extent of his abilities within a broad framework of common values. Child-centered and society-centered curricula seem to stand at opposite ends of a scale in terms of the child development versus the child molding viewpoints.

Recent years have brought forth what appears to be a sound and sane mid-ground between the child-centered and society-centered positions. Smith, Stanley, and Shores call this harmonized viewpoint the "interactive position."¹¹ Exponents of the latter position insist that education must have meaning for the child in terms of his own experience rather than simply in terms of the requirements of the adult society. At the same time, however, human personalities are shaped and their destinies primarily determined by the nature of the social institutions and the group activities of the society in which they live. Education begins with and is oriented in the interests and needs of children, but utilizes primarily those interests which serve educational purposes the best. It also utilizes some needs not represented in children's expressed interests. Instruction proceeds primarily by means of purposeful activities in which children have a responsible share in selecting, planning, and evaluating. Provision is made for direct instruction and practice of those skills not adequately learned through the stream of activities.

One illustration of the "interactive position" regarding the basic orientation of the curriculum is the concept of developmental tasks. Havighurst has defined a developmental task as a task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of an individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by society, and difficulty with later

¹¹ Smith, Stanley, and Shores, *op. cit.*, Ch. 7.

tasks.¹² A developmental task is midway between individual need and a societal demand; it partakes of the nature of both. Some tasks arise mainly from physical maturation; others arise primarily from the cultural demands of society; still others arise mainly from the personal values and aspirations of the individual. The curriculum-maker using this approach would have to identify the developmental tasks of children at different age intervals and to select those appropriate to and useful for the school's purposes.¹³

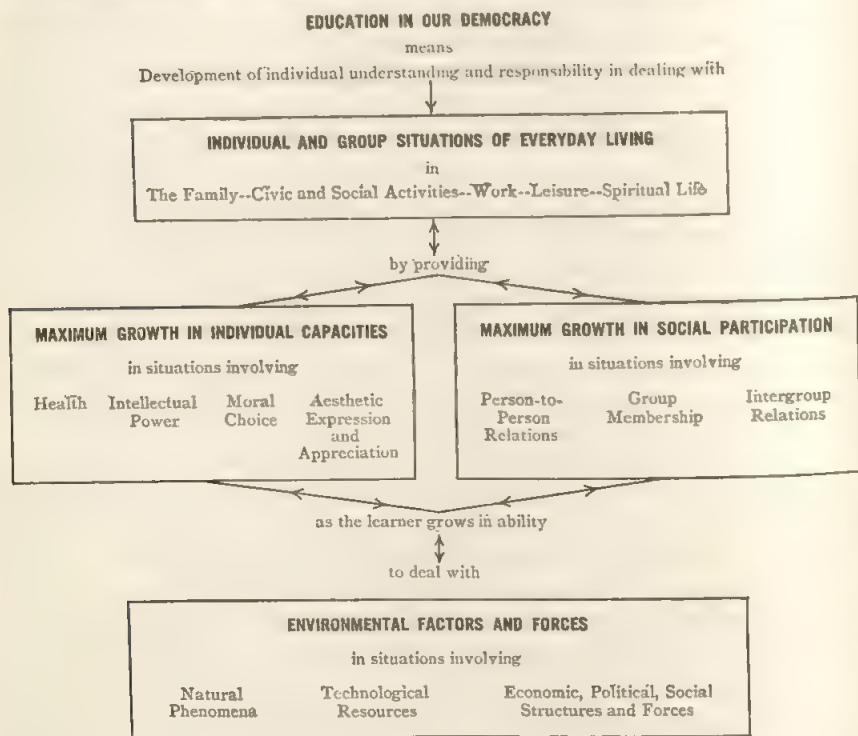


CHART 1: Scope and relationships among life situations faced by learners. From Florence B. Stratemeyer and associates, *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living*, p. 99. Reproduced by permission of and arrangement with the publishers, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Stratemeyer and her associates approached the curriculum-making job by using a slightly modified version of the developmental tasks concept.¹⁴ These writers used a concept of curriculum development which called for an analysis through which daily life concerns can be seen in relation to the

¹² Robert J. Havighurst, *Developmental Tasks and Education* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1948), p. 6.

¹³ One teacher's effort at identifying the developmental tasks confronting first grade children is reported in a Master's thesis by Vivian A. Rudisill, *A Study of Developmental Tasks Confronting First Grade Children*, University of Texas, 1950.

¹⁴ Stratemeyer and others, *op. cit.*, Ch. 5.

nature and scope of persistent life situations. Their analysis shows that the situations of everyday living reside in five major aspects of human life—in the home, as a member of a family; in the community, as a participant in civic and social activities; in work, as a member of an occupational group; in leisure time; and in spiritual activities, whether or not they are definitely connected with an organized religious group. Increased understanding and responsibility in dealing with the problems and situations of everyday living will be built as these problems are dealt with in the light of persistent life situations of which they are a part. The broad framework of this analysis is shown in Chart 1. The persistent life situations which are identified are those faced by all learners in the course of developing individual capacities, in participating as members of social groups, and in dealing with environmental factors and forces. The detailed outline of the life situations learners face occupies 122 pages in the publication by Stratemeyer and others. These authors hasten to warn that their list of persistent life situations can in no sense be thought of as the basis of fixed curriculum units. However, the outline can give guidance to curriculum workers by identifying problems and needs which are child-and-society centered.

THE ORGANIZATION OF TEACHING-LEARNING SITUATIONS

Any educational program must consist of a series of activities or events in which the learners engage. A school curriculum consists of activities and it is out of participation in these activities that children experience growth and development. Every school must have some sequence and arrangement of chief teaching-learning situations which comprise the body of its program. The nature of this main stream of events is determined by the way in which the teaching-learning situations are organized.

The discussion of the two preceding sections leads directly to a consideration of how teaching-learning situations are to be organized. The conception of the educative process, the nature and scope of objectives sought by the school, and the basic orientation of the curriculum are important considerations in deciding upon how teaching is to be carried forward. One's choice about the organization of teaching-learning situations is limited to three possibilities or a combination thereof. The oldest method for organizing the main stream of events is the assign-study-recite-test formula. This method is so well known that it needs little explanation except to point out that it has fallen into disrepute as a major method because it does not embody enough of present-day knowledge and principles about child development and the educative process. This traditional method has been superseded in modern schools by two other plans: "subject units" and functional or activity or "experience units."

Subdivisions of subjects are usually taken as the foci or centers of interest in subject-matter units. Burton defined the subject-matter unit thus: ¹⁵

A *subject-matter unit* is a selection of subject-matter materials, and of educative experiences centering upon subject-matter materials, which are arranged around a central core found within the subject matter itself. The core may be a generalization, a topic, or a theme. The unit is to be studied by pupils for the purpose of achieving learning outcomes derivable from experiences with subject matter.

Most authors identify four types of subject-matter units. *Topical units* are usually broad in scope. Such unit titles as "Sanitation" and "The Colonization of America" are typical. The *theme or generalization unit* is narrower in scope and is usually built around some major understanding which children are supposed to comprehend. "Industrial Civilizations Grow Up in Temperate Climates" is a unit title illustrative of the generalization type. The *survey unit* is usually even broader than the topical unit; sometimes a single unit occupies a whole semester or year. "How Civilized Man Lives" and "The Coming of Science" are illustrative of survey units. They are not used extensively in elementary schools. *Problem units* are of two types: (a) those in which the problems are inherent in the subject matter as determined by adults, and (b) those in which the problems are developed from the interests of pupils who are studying the subjects. "How the Old World Came to Find the New" and "Why Did the European Nations Colonize North America?" are typical titles of problem units. The titles of problem units are usually phrased as questions.

Burton has also provided an excellent definition of an experience unit: ¹⁶

An *experience unit* is a series of educative experiences organized around a pupil purpose, problem, or need, utilizing socially useful subject matter and materials, and resulting in the achievement of the purpose (solution of the problem or satisfaction of the need) and in the achievement of learning outcomes inherent in the process.

In the experience unit, pupil interest and dynamics arise out of the fact that the enterprise is something which the pupils themselves really want to do because they see its significance in terms of their interests, needs, and purposes. Experience units have vital problem-solving orientation and thus capitalize more fully upon the best psychological principles.

Burton's comparison of the major features of subject-matter and experience units includes the following: ¹⁷

¹⁵ Burton, *op. cit.*, p. 390.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 390-391.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 402-403. See also L. Thomas Hopkins, *Interaction: The Democratic Process* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1941), pp. 245-249 and 261-269.

SUBJECT-MATTER UNITS

Begin in the intention of adults to teach approved subject matter to pupils.

Are for the purpose of having pupils "cover" the material and acquire the logically arranged material as the learning outcome. . . .

Are organized logically around a core within the subject matter. . . .

Are prepared in advance, by the teacher, or by a course of study committee familiar with the materials and their logic. . . .

Are usually organized (when organized at all) logically in terms of the materials, usually from simple to complex, often chronologically.

Are controlled by the teacher by adult committee, by course of study.

Are usually centered in the past, in the "accumulated, not the accumulating" culture; little reference to present or future; reference to future usually theoretical.

Rely on formal methods, assignments, distinct lesson types, and printed materials as chief sources; learning experiences few and formal.

Give all pupils the same contact with the same materials; some provision for individual differences.

Have fixed outcomes known in advance, required uniformly for all learners.

At conclusion, evaluate through the use of formal tests of subject-matter acquisition, usually of fact or skill.

Close with a backward look, so-called "review," and are done with when finished.

EXPERIENCE UNITS

Begin in the intention of the learner to achieve some immediate purpose; to satisfy some felt need.

Are for the *immediate* purpose of satisfying a need of the learner, with the *ultimate* purpose of developing desirable meanings and facts, attitudes, skills, and patterns of thought.

Are organized psychologically around the purpose of the learner.

Are organized as they develop by a group facing a new situation for the first time, and not familiar with the materials and patterns of thought necessary to meet the situation.

Are usually organized functionally and in disregard of subject lines; from simple to complex but often from complex to simple.

Are controlled by a coöperating group of learners which includes the teacher as an active participant; uses course of study as needed.

Are usually centered in present and future; use accumulated materials from past freely in solving present problems.

Utilizes coöperatively planned procedures suited to the situation, uses sources in great variety; learning experiences numerous and varied.

Gives contact with many materials and patterns of thought; individual differences cared for variously and almost automatically.

Do not have fixed outcomes known in advance and required uniformly of all learners.

Evaluate many complex outcomes continuously, with constant use of many instruments, formal and informal.

Leads to new interests, problems, and purposes.

School programs whose emphases are confined largely to achievement in the academic fields and which consist of many separate subjects taught in isolation tend to elicit teaching methods which follow the assign-study-recite-test pattern. School programs which reflect a broader concept of objectives but adhere to the conventional subject arrangement and are basically society-centered sometimes break away from traditional teaching enough to encourage the use of subject-matter units. The activity curriculum and those that are child-and-society centered are required to use experience units if they are to remain true to their basic theories.

DESIGN OF THE CURRICULUM

After decisions have been reached on the nature and scope of the school's objectives, the psychological principles of learning to be utilized in teaching, the basic orientation of the curriculum, and the type of teaching-learning situations to receive major stress, the curriculum worker is ready to consider the organization or design of the curriculum. Curriculum design relates to the way in which the component parts of the curriculum have been arranged in order to facilitate teaching and to enable schools to formulate feasible daily and weekly schedules. Since the attention span of elementary-school children has some limits, since children demand some variety of activity and change of pace, and since all the desired activities cannot take place at once, it becomes necessary to create some kind of an orderly framework in terms of which school time can be utilized most profitably. The clearest illustration of a curriculum design is that of a school program that consists of the usual subjects, each taught by itself in a daily period specifically set aside for that purpose. The daily schedule consists of enough separate periods so that each subject may receive its appropriate attention. Usually the work in each subject proceeds in accordance with the logical and psychological arrangement of the content within that one subject and without consideration for what is taught the same children in the other subjects. This type of curriculum design has been called subjects-taught-in-isolation. It represents one way of arranging one type of curriculum. Its design may be visualized graphically in Chart 2.

As the limitations of the subjects-taught-in-isolation curriculum design became recognized, educational leaders experimented with three other ways of dealing with the subject curriculum. The first plan to receive attention was the idea of establishing as much relationship as possible between the content offered to children in the same grade in the different subjects. For example, the content for the reading period was selected so that it would relate to the topics being studied in geography or science; the spelling list for the week included some of the new terms arising in geography,

history, or arithmetic; or the language period was used to prepare papers required in geography or civics or to prepare talks scheduled in science or history. Each subject still retained its own daily period but there was a conscious effort to effect correlation between the content studied in the different subjects in the same grade. This type of design has been called "the correlated curriculum." Graphically it would look like the illustration in Chart 2 except that some tiny two-way arrows might be placed vertically between each two subjects to indicate the effort at correlation. The amount of interrelatedness brought into the curriculum by this method would depend upon the extent of the correlation that actually took place in each classroom or for each group of pupils.

1. Arithmetic
2. Art
3. Assembly Programs
4. Civics
5. Geography
6. Handwriting
7. Health
8. History
9. Homemaking
10. Industrial Arts
11. Language
12. Music
13. Opening Exercises
14. Physical Education
15. Reading
16. Science
17. Special Interest Clubs
18. Spelling

← GRADES 1 THROUGH 6 OR 8 →

CHART 2: Graphic portrayal of a subjects-taught-in-isolation type of curriculum.

Another approach that sought to overcome the limitations¹⁸ of the subjects-taught-in-isolation design was the "core curriculum." The earliest inception of the core idea grew out of the Herbartian notion of *concentration*. This notion evolved into practical form by taking one or more subjects as the center or core of the curriculum and subordinating all other subjects to it. Some of the early core programs used history and literature as the core; the sciences, mathematics, language arts, and the fine arts

¹⁸ Seven of these limitations are described in Roland C. Faunce and Nelson R. Bossing, *Developing the Core Curriculum* (New York, Prentice-Hall, 1951), pp. 1-3.

were subordinated to or dissolved into history and literature. The subordinate subjects depended for their sequence upon their connections with or contributions to the central core since they had no independent principle to determine their status in the program.¹⁹ In its original conception but in terms of present-day subject offerings the core curriculum could be visualized graphically as shown in Chart 3. In both versions shown in Chart 3 the subjects not included in the core retain their own identity as separate subjects in the daily program. The content and activities in each subject are planned, however, to provide maximum correlation with and enrichment of the core. *Plan B* differs from *Plan A* in that all phases of language arts have been merged with instruction in the core. *Plan B* thus represents an advanced concept of correlation in that the subordinate subjects definitely support and enrich the core plus the idea of integration in that instruction in language arts has been merged with instruction in the core.

Recently developed concepts about the core curriculum have injected new versions which suggest several modifications of the original core concept as shown in Chart 3. Faunce and Bossing say that the core curriculum²⁰

designates those learning experiences that are fundamental for all learners because they derive from (1) our common, individual drives or needs, and (2) our civic and social needs as participating members of a democratic society.

At another point they say:²¹

To summarize, the term "core curriculum" refers to that portion of the required curriculum which has the following characteristics:

1. It seeks to establish relationships among areas of living by the study of problems that challenge the pupil to explore and utilize the knowledge and skills of more than one subject.
2. It aims at larger objectives than would characterize any single subject area.
3. It involves the joint planning of those objectives, and of the means for achieving them, by both teachers and pupils. It is directly geared to the goal of increased skill in the processes of cooperative planning.
4. It requires a block of time longer than the traditional period.
5. It involves either a single teacher for two or more periods, or a team of teachers who work together.
6. It is dedicated to improved guidance of individuals and groups of pupils.
7. Its basic emphasis in instructional planning is the present psychobiological and social needs of the pupils themselves.

¹⁹ More complete detail on early core programs may be found in Smith, Stanley, and Shores, *op. cit.*, pp. 465-468.

²⁰ *Op. cit.*, p. 4.

²¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 8-9. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

1. Arithmetic
2. Art
3. Assembly Programs
4. Handwriting
5. Health
6. Homemaking
7. Industrial Arts
<i>The Core: consisting of History-civics-geography-literature or Science</i>
8. Language
9. Music
10. Opening Exercises
11. Physical Education
12. Reading
13. Special Interest Clubs
14. Spelling

← GRADES 1 THROUGH 6 OR 8 →

PLAN A

1. Arithmetic
2. Art
3. Assembly Programs
4. Health
5. Homemaking
<i>The Core: consisting of History-civics-geography-literature or Social Studies or Social Studies-Science combination including full integration of read- ing, language, handwriting, and spelling</i>
6. Industrial Arts
7. Music
8. Opening Exercises
9. Physical Education
10. Special Interest Clubs

← GRADES 1 THROUGH 6 OR 8 →

PLAN B

CHART 3: Graphic portrayal of two arrangements of the original concept of a core curriculum, using present-day subjects and activities.

Smith, Stanley, and Shores characterize the core curriculum by identifying two distinctive characteristics and four essential features. They point out that a core curriculum emphasizes a core of social values which are universal elements in our culture and give society its stability and unity. These values are the socio-moral rules comprising the core of the culture. The second distinctive characteristic is that the structure of the core curriculum is fixed by broad social problems or by themes of social living. The four essential features are: (1) that the core areas are required of all students; (2) that activities are planned cooperatively by teacher and pupils; (3) that provisions are made for special needs and interests as they arise; and (4) that skills are taught as they are needed.²²

These two recent characterizations of the core curriculum seem to indicate that Faunce and Bossing were thinking primarily of secondary-school programs and were taking the position that the "core" would be that portion of a secondary-school program required of all students. Smith, Stanley, and Shores also had their thinking oriented primarily toward secondary-school programs but set up their criteria so as to make them applicable to elementary-school curricula if certain conditions were met. In essence these conditions could be met in a child-and-society-centered program in which the main stream of school activities represented experience units in which current problems and activities of living are given a basic socio-moral orientation.

Current concepts about the core curriculum are thus quite different from the original notion as illustrated in Chart 3. It is doubtful whether the current conception of core curriculum holds much promise for curriculum design in the elementary school. Very few elementary-school programs today are true examples of either the original or the modern conception of a core curriculum.

A third variation of the subjects-taught-in-isolation curriculum is known as the "broad fields design." Basically it too is a subject curriculum, but represents an extensive effort at integration of the subject matter in closely related fields. The most familiar illustration of such integration at the elementary-school level is the development of social studies courses instead of the separate subjects of history, geography, and civics. Whenever the content from these three fields, plus such areas as economics, sociology, and anthropology, has been completely rearranged so that the children's program proceeds in terms of units focused upon broad problems or themes, one has an example of social studies as a broad field. The separate subjects have lost their identity, but content from any or all of them is utilized whenever the issues, problems, and activities of the unit require it. The assumption is that life's problems cut across subject-matter lines and that subject matter should serve problems and be mustered around important problems of

²² Smith, Stanley, and Shores, *op. cit.*, Ch. 20.

living. Such an approach precludes the use of a logical coverage of the subject matter of a given subject.

The other broad fields commonly represented in this type of curriculum pattern are the language arts, science and health, arithmetic, and the creative and recreative arts. In the language arts the subjects of reading, spelling, handwriting, literature, and oral and written composition have been merged into an integrated field in which instruction is organized around interest centers in which all phases of language find logical expression and functional application. In some programs the language arts activities are organized and scheduled as a separate field, thus retaining a genuine broad field designation.²³ In other school systems, at least in the middle and upper grades, the language arts are merged completely with instruction in social studies, science and health, and arithmetic, thus extending the idea of integration and removing the necessity for a separate daily period for language arts.²⁴

Arithmetic usually retains its own identity as a broad field. The content of health instruction is considered as science content and is thus merged with natural science to make the fourth broad field. Physical education, music, art and handicraft activities comprise the fifth broad field of creative and recreative arts. This type of curriculum design is pictured in Chart 4. Note that the many separate subjects shown in Chart 2 have been reduced to five broad fields representing only seven separate areas. The broad fields design thus represents extensive reorganization and synthesis of the elementary-school curriculum.

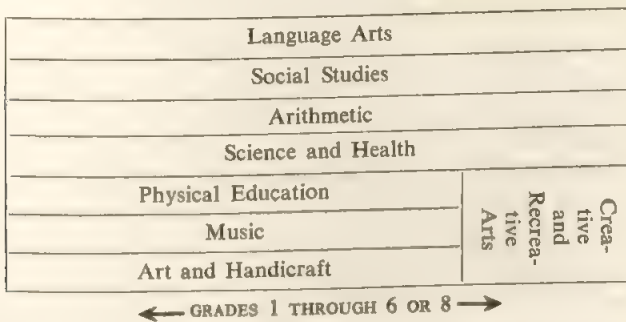


CHART 4: Graphic portrayal of a broad fields curriculum design for elementary schools.

All four of the curriculum designs described in the preceding paragraphs are basically subject curricula. Although the content of the subjects is viewed, arranged, or used in somewhat different manner in the different designs, the basic orientation of the instructional program is that of subject

²³ The language arts program in Denison, Texas, illustrates this plan.

²⁴ The programs in Bonham, Waco, Tyler, and Austin, Texas, illustrate this plan.

matter to be learned. Broader objectives and broader outcomes for pupils would depend upon the organization of teaching-learning situations and the basis for selection of units if the unit organization is used. The activity curriculum is the only curriculum design that has emerged on the educational horizon that makes a complete break with the conventional subject organization. In its true form the activity curriculum moves forward in terms of children's interests and purposes, guided into educationally useful activities through cooperative planning by teacher and pupils. The usual subjects do not appear on the daily schedule. In fact, the daily schedule is purposely kept highly flexible to permit maximum freedom in pursuing the pupil's purposes. The activity curriculum has never had wide acceptance in public schools as compared to the almost universal acceptance of the subject curriculum designs, especially the subjects-taught-in-isolation type.

Limited acceptance of the activity curriculum is probably due to limited vision on the part of educators regarding the ultimate outcome of such a program, insecurity of teachers regarding their skill in handling such a program, recognition that children's interests might result in a restricted or unbalanced curriculum, the persistence of the concept of "education for future needs," and the conservative attitudes of parents as their opinions impinge upon local school programs. Long-term experimentation to ascertain the advantages and limitations of a pure type activity curriculum has not prevailed and is almost impossible to arrange in a public school setting. Yet, in spite of these reservations and limited acceptance, the school systems that represent the frontier in curriculum revision are actually utilizing major elements of the activity concept. Basing instruction in realistic interests of children, endeavoring to serve children's emotional, social, and physical as well as intellectual development, conceiving educational objectives broadly in terms of behavioral competencies, and encouraging full development of all the talents and potentialities of each child are some of the emphases inherent in the activity concept that are finding wide expression in current elementary-school programs. These elements are correlated with social needs and demands which the physical and cultural environment make upon children and adults.

The resulting emergent curriculum design seems to use the broad fields pattern as its basic orientation, with numerous modifications, depending upon the extent to which generalizations about children's growth and development, concepts about the scope and nature of educational objectives, and ideas about curriculum synthesis and integration are influencing revision programs. In some instances the social studies and science and health fields are being merged into a social studies-science combination, whereas in others this combination is further extended to include extensive integration of language arts, music, and art and handicraft. Extensive curriculum integration and the use of a broad base of subject matter is achieved through

the use of experience units which have their setting in the common activities of living (sometimes called areas of living or common social functions such as production, distribution, consumption, conservation, communication, and so forth) in which problems of everyday living are handled in such a way as to assist children with their developmental tasks and persistent life situations. Such an approach represents a child-and-society-centered program in which definite provision is made for direct instruction and practice on those academic skills not learned to a desired degree through the units. Provision for such direct instruction and practice is in full harmony with the activity concept. The chief danger lies in schools tending to restrict such practice to skills in the three R's when other types of skills are usually in equally dire need of attention. There is also the danger that too little effort will be made to secure extensive functional use of the skills in the units and thereby causing too much of the school day to be set aside for "practice on skills." If this happens the program will veer toward subjects-taught-in-isolation and thus lose the essential advantages of a well-integrated broad fields design of the curriculum.

Chart 5 illustrates the eclectic approach described in the preceding paragraph. Extensive curriculum integration was achieved by combining social studies and science into a broad field. Classroom instruction would proceed in terms of broadly conceived units which encourage teachers to merge much of the work in language arts, music, art and handicraft with the unit activities. The foci of the units are drawn from the 12 common activities of living shown at the right end of Chart 5. The curriculum bulletins provided for the teachers include an extensive outline of the developmental tasks and learnings that children in different age groups would normally encounter.

Some writers have warned us about over-formalization and over-structuring of the frame of reference within which teaching is to take place. McSwain pointed out that one of the most important aspects of curriculum design lies in *the designing* that takes place as teacher and pupils plan and work together.²⁵ Mackenzie emphasized the critical role of learning experiences. In examining curriculum design, learning experiences themselves are *the most* significant concern. He said:²⁶ "Because of the central significance and importance of learning experiences, they become, in fact, the organizing elements." Herrick contends that curriculum design is a statement of the pattern of relationships which exist among the elements of curriculum as they are used to make one consistent set of decisions about

²⁵ E. T. McSwain, "Curriculum Design," 1950-1951 Yearbook, Texas Elementary Principals and Supervisors Association (1951), pp. 26-32.

²⁶ Gordon N. Mackenzie, "What Should Be the Organizing Elements of the Curriculum?" in *Toward Improved Curriculum Theory*, compiled and edited by Virgil E. Herrick and Ralph W. Tyler, *Supplementary Educational Monographs*, No. 71 (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, March, 1950), p. 53.

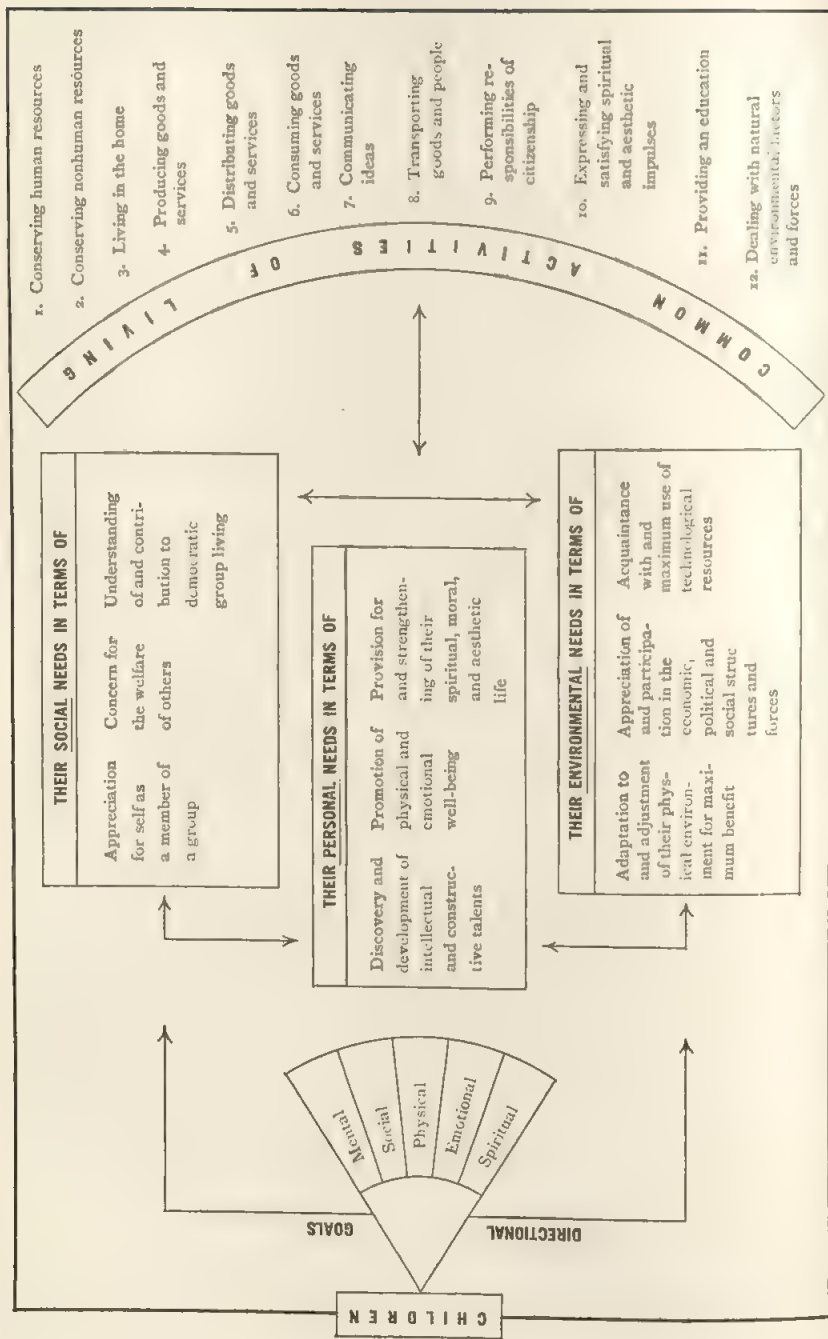


CHART 5: Orientation and scope of the elementary-school curriculum in Austin, Texas. Reproduced by permission from *A Teaching Guide for Social Studies-Science, Grade Four*, Austin, Texas, Public Schools, 1949.

the nature of the curriculum.²⁷ He says that any curriculum design must account for, and resolve in some consistent way, the following questions which every teacher must ask himself: ^{27a}

1. How can I know the child and prepare and manage a classroom environment which will promote his optimum learning?
2. How can I identify, define, and use my instructional objectives to determine the scope, direction, and emphasis of the child's learning experience?
3. How can I select and organize these experiences so as to aid the child to achieve worth-while educational ends?
4. How can I teach or manage the educational process so that these experiences are most effectively utilized by the child to achieve these ends?
5. How can I evaluate so as to determine the extent and quality of the child's development toward these ends?

In the process of discussing various ideas about curriculum design Herick developed 11 propositions regarding the importance and the function of curriculum design and a proposed design. The latter is reproduced in Chart 6. His 11 propositions are as follows: ²⁸

1. Any curriculum design or plan, if it is to become effective in improving curriculum, must make explicit and clear the bases upon which curriculum decisions are made.
2. Any over-all curriculum design sufficient to give adequate direction to a program of general education must be considered in more than one dimension and on more than one operational level.
3. A curriculum design becomes more usable in improving educational programs if it has, as its major organizational focus, the problem of selecting, organizing, and teaching the learning experiences of children and youth.
4. A concept of curriculum design is necessary to give perspective and orientation to curriculum-improvement programs concerned with a single phase of curriculum development.
5. In curriculum design, the identification of the approach used for selecting and organizing the learning experiences of children determines the nature of the definition and use of objectives at the instructional level.
6. A curriculum design makes clear the factors involved in the selection of learning experiences and indicates the order of priority in which they are used.
- 7-8. The curriculum design must (a) indicate the nature of the centers used for organizing the instructional program and (b) point out the extent to which the center of instructional organization becomes not only the focus of organization but also the means for selecting.
9. A curriculum design must make clear the nature and use of the provisions for both horizontal and vertical continuity.
10. Curriculum designs must provide staffs and individual teachers with an understanding of their role and responsibilities in making the major decisions of curriculum development.

²⁷ Virgil E. Herrick, "The Concept of Curriculum Design," in *Toward Improved Curriculum Theory*, *ibid.*, Ch. 4. Copyright 1950 by the University of Chicago.

^{27a} *Ibid.*, p. 38. Copyright 1950 by the University of Chicago.

²⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 49-50. Copyright 1950 by the University of Chicago.

11. The identification and study of the assumptions underlying the major curriculum approaches provide the means for revealing and pointing up the key research and developmental problems in curriculum.

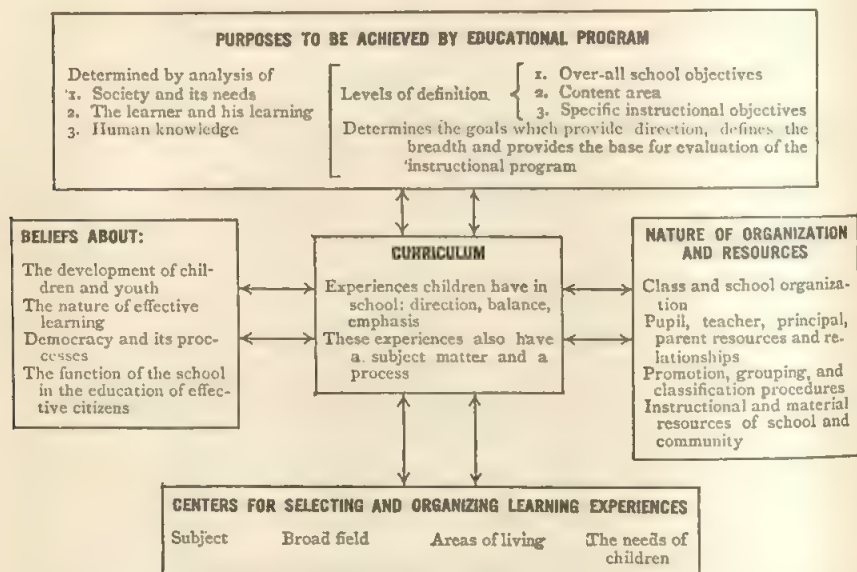


CHART 6: A proposed curriculum design. By Virgil E. Herrick and reproduced from *Toward Improved Curriculum Theory*, compiled and edited by Virgil E. Herrick and Ralph W. Tyler, *Supplementary Education Monographs*, No. 71 (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, March, 1950), p. 43. Copyright 1950 by the University of Chicago.

A good resume of current curriculum trends and problems may be obtained from the summary prepared by Shores after he had made a critical review of the research on elementary-school curriculum organization from 1890 to 1949. His summary indicates the trend to be: ²⁹

1. For recent research in elementary education to be centered upon studies of child growth and development and upon improvement of instruction in the separate subjects or areas (reading, arithmetic, social studies, etc.) of the elementary curriculum.

2. For aims to be fewer in number and to take the form of descriptions of pupil behavior rather than knowledge of subject matter.

3. For the conflict between emphases upon subject matter, individual interests and needs of children, and social needs to continue to be apparent in the expressed aims of new curricula.

4. For growth of broad field areas of subject matter as a basis of curriculum organization.

5. For few new curricula to attempt an activity organization.

6. For core organizations to emerge when curriculum-building is undertaken which includes both elementary and secondary schools.

²⁹ J. Harlan Shores, "A Critical Review of the Research on Elementary School Curriculum Organization, 1890-1949," *University of Illinois Bulletin*, Vol. 47, No. 8 (September, 1949), pp. 20-21.

7. For elementary curricula to include aspects of a core organization within the basic pattern of organization on the basis of broad fields of subject matter.

8. For curriculum revision to include all grades or at least grades 1-12.

9. For curriculum revision to be a continuous process.

10. For state legislatures to assume an increasing role in the determination of the objectives and organization of the elementary curriculum through specific legislation of instructional requirements, certification requirements, and accreditation standards.

11. For curriculum workers to be increasingly concerned with attempts to translate the meaning of democratic living into specific instructional goals and programs.

12. For a greater proportion of time to be devoted to study of problems of social living. This trend is apparent in practice even when there has been no basic change in curriculum organization.

As faculties in local schools and school systems engage in curriculum revision and reach decisions on the issues which have been raised in the preceding sections of this chapter and Chapter 2, they will have to think through a number of related issues and concerns. Some of these are identified in the paragraphs which follow.

THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL

The community-school idea is not a special design of the curriculum. Instead, it is a term used to symbolize a number of different kinds of relationships between the school and the community. The academic and non-life-related character of many school curricula led to a number of ideas and proposals for making education more functional and realistic. These several ideas have been merged into the community-school concept. Olsen postulated six fundamental principles which he deemed basic to the community school:³⁰

1. Evolve its purposes out of the interests and needs of the people.
2. Utilize a wide variety of community resources in its program.
3. Practice and promote democracy in all activities of school and community.
4. Build the curriculum core around the major processes and problems of human living.
5. Exercise definite leadership for the planned and cooperative improvement of group living in the community and larger areas.
6. Enlist children and adults in cooperative group projects of common interest and mutual concern.

Perusal of these six items will reveal the incorporation of many of them in curriculum ideas previously discussed. Perhaps the major new

³⁰ Edward G. Olsen, *School and Community* (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945), p. 11. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

emphasis is the large amount of stress placed upon the schools' role in bringing about desired improvements in the character and quality of living and civic processes in the community. In another publication Olsen stresses the point that the schools' basic function is to improve the quality of human living, that if instruction is to become truly effective it must be organized around fundamental human needs, and that schools must identify their programs directly with community-life processes and problems.³¹

Direct community service and direct efforts at community improvement become difficult for elementary schools that conclude with the sixth grade. Children under 12 years of age are too immature to deal with involved problems of sanitation, recreation, housing, zoning, park areas, city government, employment, and many other problems that baffle adults. Children can deal with these types of problems only on the small scale as they may affect them in their immediate environment of the school and the home. No doubt every school has a number of immediate action situations with which children can cope. Such problems should become dynamic foci for instructional activities; in fact, such projects represent genuine experience units.

Many schools in urban centers are serving children who come from homes in a neighborhood which really does not represent a community in the true sense. The adults of the neighborhood represent an aggregation of individuals who reside in a defined geographical area but otherwise do not share the common elements that make a community. They may or may not know each other. Each is engaged in some specialized occupation or profession. Some of them may even come together in occupational groups for the purpose of protecting and advancing the interests that stem from their work, but they seldom come together in genuine community activities. While their specialized activities increase their interdependence and hence accentuate the need for a genuine community, their dispersion of activities and interests tend to breed narrow interests, partial points of view, and tendencies which interfere with their capabilities for recognizing and participating in shared concerns. In order to have a community school there must first be a community. Many city elementary schools find themselves in a situation in which the school itself is really the only common concern of most of the homes whose children attend that school. It becomes difficult, therefore, for the school to engage children and their parents in community concerns.³²

All schools, however, can expand their contacts with the community and close the gaps which now exist between the school and the community. Olsen has used a vivid method of portraying the need for closer

³¹ Edward G. Olsen, *Community and School Programs* (New York, Prentice-Hall, 1949), p. ix.

³² A good discussion of the community-school concept will be found in Smith, Stanley, and Shores, *op. cit.*, Ch. 22.

school and community relations. He pictured the school as located on an island and the community on the mainland. Then he shows 10 bridges to facilitate closer communication between them. These 10 bridges represent the use of documentary materials, audio-visual aids, resource visitors, interviews, field trips, surveys, extended field studies, camping, service projects, and work experiences.⁸³

THE THREE R's

Elementary-school workers today are faced with special issues regarding the three R's. An expanded public interest in schools has created more critical attitudes on the part of parents and employers. It is very logical that the thinking of adults should focus upon that phase of instruction which is most familiar to them because their own schooling was devoted almost entirely to the three R's and systematic day by day lessons from basal texts in history and geography. Sometimes the criticism of modern schools is unjustified or even malicious but in most cases it is an honest groping for insight and answers, usually predicated upon the only basis available to adults, namely, their memories of their own schooling.

Expansion and intensification of recent parent and employer interest in modern school programs stem from a variety of causes. Whenever school budgets rise noticeably and taxpayers' pocketbooks become strained there is a normal inquiry into the scope and quality of service received. Usually people are willing to pay the increases if they become convinced that the returns justify the added costs. These inquiring tendencies on the part of the public do place teachers and administrators on the spot to demonstrate the value of the service whenever additional revenues are requested. These normal pressures for proof of "a better job being done" have been augmented during recent years by the uncertainties inherent in the post-World-War-II era. When people don't know where or how soon another war of unimaginable horror and destruction will break out, or what will happen to themselves and their families, or what will happen to the economic structure, or for what kind of a life to prepare their children, they are prone to endeavor to stabilize their emotional and intellectual confusion by reverting to those things which gave security and stability in earlier years. The total world setting after 1945 tended to stress survival of the strongest, i.e., the strongest in moral power and in skill in the scientific, mechanical, and industrial areas. Everywhere was the demand for supermen, and many parents wanted to be assured that their children were well equipped with the technical skills and knowledges. The very struggle for survival catapulted into undue prominence the skill areas of education and pushed into oblivion the harmonizing, socializing, and refining elements. All of these factors put together precipitated special interest in the role of the three R's in school

⁸³ Olsen, *School and Community*, op. cit., Part III.

curricula and children's achievement therein. Three special issues thus confront elementary-school workers.

The first of these issues pertains to the place of the three R's in modern school curricula. Let us assure ourselves and others that at no time in the history of education in this country has a responsible educator even suggested that instruction in the three R's was unnecessary. Today not only the elementary schools but the secondary schools as well give much attention to the three R's.³⁴ Furthermore, the three R's are much broader now than they ever were. McSwain's statement expresses the idea very well.³⁵

It is impossible for any child to learn unless he understands the fundamentals, the tools of learning. Let us say to the public, as we have never said before, "We believe in the three R's because if we do not believe in the three R's, we do not believe in education." You and I cannot develop intelligence or competence in seeing the world today unless we can read critically, listen critically, use language critically. But let us also help the parents and ourselves and children to examine how we learn the tools of learning. And what is important after having learned the tools of learning is the kind of materials we use.

Take, for example, reading. It is dangerous to know how to read today unless one knows some other things. Who wrote what I am reading? What is his motive? What is his competence to write what I am being asked to read? Should I be a little more careful of my appraisal of what I am getting through reading before I make it part of myself? You know, it is possible to teach children the mechanics of reading so effectively that they lose the real responsibility that is in reading, namely, what am I reading and what am I getting from my reading? Go into our schools and ask the question, not critically, but honestly, "What is the social value of the books and the material that children are reading? Is it current? Is it helping them to get an understanding of the contemporary issues of life, the contemporary opportunities and experiments of life? Or does it deal more with yesterday and with the culture?"

It is true that the three R's are taught much differently now than they were even 10 years ago. Readiness programs and procedures for meeting individual differences are utilized to make learning easier, more effective, and adapted to children's ability and maturity, but total attention to the three R's is much broader today than at any former time. All of the curriculum designs and educational objectives previously discussed in this chapter give clear recognition to the important place given the three R's in elementary-school programs. Some school systems have even gone so far as to work out elaborate plans for integrating much of the instruction in the three R's with activities in the content subjects in order to secure more effective and functional learning of the basic skills.

Whether children's achievement in the three R's is as good today as in former years is another question that school workers must answer

³⁴ National Society for the Study of Education, *Reading in High School and College*, Forty-seventh Yearbook, Part II (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1948).

³⁵ E. T. McSwain, *op. cit.*, pp. 27-28.

repeatedly. Research has shown repeatedly that the answer is in the affirmative. Not only is children's achievement as good as it used to be but in many areas it is better than it has ever been in spite of the fact that today's schools serve all the children rather than a select few. Rock's summary of eight studies published between 1908 and 1949 shows consistent improvement in children's achievement over the years.³⁶ These studies compared 1908 with 1846,³⁷ 1918 with 1845,³⁸ 1933 with 1923,³⁹ 1936 with 1870,⁴⁰ 1945 with 1925,⁴¹ before and after 1945,⁴² 1948 with 1931,⁴³ and 1949 with 1918.⁴⁴ Although the two studies by Doyle and Rogers showed certain weakness in children's performance in recent years, the majority of the investigators pointed to the superiority of the schools in more recent times. Today's schools educate all the children, whereas the schools of the past seemed to deal with a select group. Moreover, the learning of children today is more meaningful, for children are able to understand and apply principles and to reason better than the pupils of former times. Although the emphasis has changed from discipline and information to the development of the individual, the evidence shows that the newer school practices nevertheless teach the three R's, and they do it more effectively than did the old school. There is a tendency to glorify the schools of the past, but such evidence as exists indicates that the schools of today are more efficient than were those of earlier times.

The third issue is whether newer curriculum practices result in lower, similar, or better achievement in the three R's. This question is partially answered in the preceding paragraph. But not all schools have modern curricula. In fact, most elementary schools today still adhere to very conventional curricula and teaching practices. Most of the researches mentioned in the preceding section were probably done in school systems in

³⁶ Beryl Rutledge Rock, *Children's Achievement in the Amanda Burks Elementary School, 1937 to 1951*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1951.

³⁷ "Facts on the Public School Curriculum," *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 1, No. 5 (1924), pp. 314-315.

³⁸ Otis W. Caldwell and Stuart A. Courtis, *Then and Now in Education—1845:1923* (New York, World Book Co., 1924).

³⁹ Paul Leonard and Alvin C. Eurich, eds., *An Evaluation of Modern Education* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1942), p. 157.

⁴⁰ Douglas E. Lawson, "Historical Survey of Changes in Aims and Outcomes of School Examinations," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 26 (December, 1940), pp. 667-678.

⁴¹ Don C. Rogers, "Cooperative In-Service Studies of Arithmetic," in *Arithmetic: 1949, Supplementary Educational Monographs*, No. 70 (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1949), pp. 75-79.

⁴² Ernest W. Tiegs, "A Comparison of Pupil Achievement in the Basic Skills Before and After 1945," *Growing Points in Educational Research*, N.E.A., American Educational Research Association, Official Report (1949), pp. 50-57.

⁴³ F. H. Finch and V. W. Gillenwater, "Reading Achievement Then and Now," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 49 (April, 1949), pp. 446-454.

⁴⁴ Andrew M. Doyle, "A Study of Spelling Achievement," *Catholic Educational Review*, Vol. 48 (March, 1950), pp. 171-174.

which many or most teachers were following conventional practices. Those studies, therefore, show that improved methods and materials in conventional curricula of today netted better returns than the same types of curricula of yesteryear. The improvement that is shown is thus largely the result of using better methods and materials in conventional curricula. The studies actually may not be evaluations of the effectiveness of modern curricula in producing achievement in the three R's.

Fundamentally reorganized curricula, especially those that have embodied the essential features of the activity curriculum, have raised many questions regarding outcomes in the three R's as well as other values. Fortunately a number of studies have been made evaluating the newer programs. Wrightstone's book ⁴⁵ and the entire volume by Leonard and Eurich ⁴⁶ are excellent summaries of these researches. In the latter book Leonard and Eurich summarized the evidence on growth in basic skills. Their summary statement reads as follows: ⁴⁷

A cursory analysis of the basic skills in the new compared with the conventional curriculum reveals that the new curriculum comprises more numerous and more complex basic skills than the old. The character of the fundamental skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic have been expanded through cumulative experience and research to meet the needs of children in modern schools. In addition the modern curriculum and instructional methods require competence in new work-study skills, library skills, skills involved in critical thinking, and skills involved in personal-social relationships.

The evidence of growth in basic skills, both at the elementary and the secondary levels, reveals clearly that in the modern curriculum these skills are achieved as thoroughly or better than in the conventional curriculum. This is true for the basic skills discussed in this chapter, namely, skills in reading, arithmetic, language, work-study, library, critical thinking, health, and personal social relationships. The evidence of growth cited in this chapter has been drawn from the major experiments and research studies that have been conducted and reported in recent years. Although many smaller and less comprehensive studies might have been cited, such evidence would merely support the finding included in this chapter.

THE ROLE OF BASAL TEXTS

From early beginnings, instruction in schools in this country has relied heavily on the use of textbooks. The widespread use of the subject curriculum has been an important factor in shaping teaching methods closely associated with the sequential use of content as presented in basal texts. In fact, the overuse of basal texts has been one of the major sources of criticism of conventional curricula. Subjects taught in isolation from single texts adopted for each subject tend to restrict the scope of objectives

⁴⁵ J. Wayne Wrightstone, *Appraisal of Newer Elementary School Practices* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938).

⁴⁶ *Op. cit.*

⁴⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 177-178. Quoted by permission of the publisher.

sought, to restrict the educational outcomes for children, and to encourage stereotyped teaching.

Broader curricula endeavoring to use experience units simply cannot exist if teaching is to be tied to a single series of basal texts. Teachers and administrators engaged in modernizing school programs simply have to face the issue as to the role which basal texts are to have in revised curriculum concepts and practices. Enriched teaching requires the use of many and varied learning materials, including a variety of basal texts, reference books, fiction, biography, and content materials found in pamphlets and bulletins. Usually it is not necessary to provide each child in a class with one copy of a given text in the social studies or science fields. A broader assortment of content and books of different reading difficulty can be provided if basal texts in these fields are selected so that each room has from five to eight copies each of three to five basal texts. In this way the basal texts available can be used as resource or reference materials along with such other learning aids as the school can provide.

Newer curricula which seek broader objectives and enriched teaching require a generous repertoire of reading materials. Basal texts provide essential content. The issue is not whether newer curricula do or do not require basal texts. Newer curricula require more basal text materials than conventional programs; the requirement is for more books and a greater variety of them. But newer programs also demand that basal texts be used as reference material and that no teacher or class be required to pursue a *given* text page by page or chapter by chapter. Significant teaching programs must be built around dynamic units and pupil activities rather than sequential study of the content in a single text.

AREAS OF SPECIAL INSTRUCTIONAL EMPHASIS

As curriculum revision proceeds in local school systems, special attention will have to be given to certain instructional emphases for which the need has been called to our attention because of cultural trends. These areas represent societal problems on which it is thought that school programs can make important contributions. They are illustrations of ways in which the society-centered aspect of school curricula can make direct contact with and a contribution toward resolving important social problems.

One of the more easily recognized societal needs is conservation. The closing of the frontier in the United States in a number of ways gradually brought the people to the realization that even a land at one time so abundant with natural resources as this country was would not continue indefinitely to be so plentiful. Wildlife is rapidly decreasing with resulting danger to the population. Mineral, oil, and coal resources are likewise limited in supply. From a curriculum standpoint, the whole movement for

augmenting the teaching of conservation has several interesting aspects. Here is a national problem affecting the future welfare of the people. One of the most effective methods for familiarizing the public with the problem and for building sentiment favorable to action is education. Practically everyone, including state legislatures, is very willing to have the schools play an active role in educating the public for action. It is an interesting illustration of how social change affects the curriculum and how the schools can assume an aggressive role in cultural improvement. The scope of conservation teaching includes wildlife, mineral resources, water, forests, and soil. Activities for all grade levels are possible. The various problems lend themselves for use as integrated units or for correlation with reading, history, geography, and civics.⁴⁸

Another problem of curriculum-making which is assuming new proportions in our present industrial civilization is education for wholesome use of leisure time. As large-scale production and technological inventions continue to displace human labor, the American people will be confronted with increasing amounts of leisure which should be directed into worth-while outlets. During periods of war, when headlines pronounce shortages of man power and woman power, it is difficult to generate enthusiasm for education for leisure. The same may be true during periods of great economic activity following a war, but the history of trends in this country and predictions about the immediate future are sufficiently clear on this issue so that schools can hardly afford to relinquish their efforts in this regard. Unless a major catastrophe befalls our culture, education for leisure will continue to be an important problem. Constructive educational efforts in this direction should be a part of the school program from kindergarten to college and in adult education.

One of the long-standing objectives of education has dealt with home and family life. The viewpoint which prevails is that the educated person appreciates the family as a social institution, is skilled in homemaking, and maintains democratic family relations. Elementary schools of today give considerable attention to this objective through a variety of channels. One of these consists of units on the home and family life which appear at all grade levels, but which are found most frequently in the primary grades. State and city courses of study abound in suggested units of this type.

Other avenues for augmenting attention to the home and family life consist of the many selections in readers and library books, the study of

⁴⁸ Effie G. Bathurst, *Teaching Conservation in Elementary Schools*, Bulletin No. 14 (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1938); Effie G. Bathurst, *Curriculum Content in Conservation for Elementary Schools*, Bulletin No. 14 (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1939); Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Large Was Our Bounty*, Yearbook (Washington, N.E.A., 1948); American Association of School Administration, *Conservation Education in American Schools*, Twenty-ninth Yearbook (Washington, N.E.A., 1951).

homes and the home life of people in foreign lands in the social studies, action projects in which the children strive to effect improvements in and about their own homes, and homemaking courses offered in the upper elementary grades. Assistance in planning for an appropriate emphasis upon home and family life education can be obtained from many sources.⁴⁹

World War II was followed by world-wide unrest and tensions. The importance of leadership by the United States in championing democratic values and practices at home and abroad resulted in intensified efforts to ease tensions among groups in this country, to erase inequalities and undemocratic practices at home, to foster international understanding and good will, and to promote knowledge about and the success of the United Nations organization as an agency for world peace. Since many of these problems can be solved only on a long-term basis through the education of successive generations of future citizens, national leaders have again turned to the schools of the world to take an important role. This has led to extensive proposals for educational activities dealing with intergroup and intercultural education and teaching about UNESCO (the abbreviation for the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization). Suggestions for elementary-school curricula may be found in many sources.⁵⁰

In the elementary school, mental hygiene is not a subject to be taught; there are no topics or projects to be taught. Mental hygiene is the indirect yet deliberate and positive contribution to emotional and personality development and to social adjustment which the school makes through the way in which the teachers, the curriculum, methods of teaching, and the administrative practices relate themselves to the children. Originally the

⁴⁹ Elsie Clapp, *Community Schools in Action* (New York, The Viking Press, 1939); L. S. Tireman, *La Comunidad* (Albuquerque, University of New Mexico Press, 1943); R. E. Tidwell, *Planning Improvement in Rural Living through the Schools: A Report of an Exploratory Study of County Educational Problems*, University of Alabama Bulletin, New Series, No. 256 (1943); Maurice F. Seay and Leonard E. Meece, *Planning for Education in Kentucky*, Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, University of Kentucky, College of Education, Vol. 17, No. 1 (September, 1944). Also their Bulletin, Vol. 16, No. 4 (June, 1944); American Association of School Administrators, *Education for Family Life*, Nineteenth Yearbook (Washington, N.E.A., 1941); Elizabeth Stevenson, *Home and Family Life Education in the Elementary School* (New York, John Wiley and Sons, 1946).

⁵⁰ Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, *Americans All: Studies in Intercultural Education* (Washington, N.E.A., 1942); National Council for the Social Studies, *Democratic Human Relations*, Sixteenth Yearbook (Washington, N.E.A., 1945); Department of Elementary School Principals, *Learning Goodwill in the Elementary School*, Twenty-fifth Yearbook (Washington, N.E.A., 1946); American Council on Education, *Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools: Elementary Curriculum in Intergroup Relations: Case Studies in Instruction* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1950); Ryland Crary and John Robinson, *America's Stake in Human Rights* (Washington, National Council for the Social Studies, N.E.A., 1950); *United Nations in the Schools* (New York, 45 East 65th St., American Association for the United Nations, 1950); Unesco, *A Handbook for the Improvement of Textbooks and Teaching Materials* (New York, Columbia University Press, 1950).

term *mental hygiene* was associated with better care for the mentally ill or the insane. Later the term became identified with the prevention of mental disorders through psychiatric clinics. Among school people mental hygiene has meant primarily the diagnosis and treatment of children exhibiting behavior problems in the school. More recently mental hygiene has assumed broader meanings. It is now recognized that mental health is important for all persons and that mental hygiene is an operational concept which should be recognized in all human relationships and in the individual's efforts to find his useful and satisfying place in society.

The deep implications of mental hygiene for the organization and administration and the curriculum of the elementary school cannot be visualized adequately without going rather thoroughly into children's needs (physiological, social, and ego-integrative), emotional development, and personality development.⁵¹

Health education, like character education, is an integral part of nearly all aspects of school life. Health, in a certain sense, is a way of living, and good health habits are manifest in nearly all school activities as well as in the out-of-school life of the child. From the viewpoint of the teacher, health education encompasses such major items as school hygiene, which includes the hygiene of instruction and the hygiene of the school plant, health supervision and health service, physical education, special provisions for handicapped children, and the establishment of cooperative relations with the homes and the community so that the latter may cooperate in the attainment of the health objectives of the school. From the viewpoint of the curriculum-maker, health education embodies the determination of essential and appropriate objectives and the selection, application, distribution, and evaluation of activities and instructional materials whereby the school may promote the largest amount of growth of both normal and handicapped children toward desirable health goals.

For the school administrator this broad concept of health education presents a real challenge to his ability to organize and administer. The work of the health-service department, the program of physical education and corrective work, and health instruction must be integrated and coordinated so that each may make the work of the others more effective. Appropriate activities and instructional materials must be selected and the classroom teachers trained in their use. The whole administrative machinery must function in such a way that the classroom teacher may utilize to the maximum the many opportunities and avenues for health education. Be-

⁵¹ Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, *Mental Health in the Classroom*, Thirteenth Yearbook (Washington, N.E.A., 1940); P. A. Witty and C. E. Skinner, eds., *Mental Hygiene in Modern Education* (New York, Farrar and Rinehart, 1939); W. C. Ryan, *Mental Health Through Education* (New York, The Commonwealth Fund, 1938); Bruno Gebbard, *Discipline and Emotional Health* (Cleveland, Health Museum, 1950); Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools*, Yearbook (Washington, N.E.A., 1950).

cause of the recency and the importance of comprehensive health programs and because of the many problems pertaining to the organization and administration of the program for health in the public schools, it was thought desirable to give this topic a more extended treatment in a subsequent chapter.

THE WIDER BASE OF RESOURCES FOR TEACHING

Improved curricula and enriched teaching are demanding a much broader base of resources for teaching. School administrators and curriculum makers must realize that better teaching and better learning can be expected only if teachers are provided with the essential tools. Today's concept about resources for teaching must be broad enough to envision all of the learning aids suitable for use in elementary schools. Books and instructional materials are indeed the tools of the classroom and are of primary importance for the learner, the teacher, and the curriculum-maker. Since books and materials furnish the media through which many of the educational processes operate, the quantity and character of these tools of learning determine in no small measure the methods teachers use and the actual outcomes of school experiences.

Books, of course, do not constitute the total instructional equipment of the classroom. Much other material in the form of paper, notebooks, workbooks, maps, globes, charts, sandtables, aquariums, and tools and materials for construction and dramatization is desired by teachers. To this array of equipment must be added the various devices for visual education, the radio, the "talkies," the museum, the library, and the opportunities for excursions and field trips. The excursions and field trips perhaps should be placed in a category separate from the others, since they represent utilization of the neighborhood rather than facilities provided directly by the school.

The concept of visual education is neither new nor unique. Its origin can be traced back to primitive peoples. As an important teaching device it has always been an element in American classroom procedure. Even in the most formal learning situation such media as maps, charts, diagrams, models, and pictures have been used quite generally by all teachers. Textbooks contain many maps, pictures, and graphs. Stereoscopes and crude projection devices have been among the teaching tools of some teachers, but the inconvenient and cumbersome way in which these instruments had to be used was a distinct limitation. It was not until the twentieth-century developments in all types of projection instruments that visual instruction assumed new proportions and presaged hitherto unforeseen avenues of education.

Most schools probably could use to advantage more visual-aids equip-

ment than they have. Many schools have much less of such equipment than authorities in the field recommend. The minimum requirements as set forth by Seaton are as follows:⁵²

1. One 16 mm. sound projector for every 200 students.
2. One filmstrip projector for every 200 students.
3. One 2" x 2" projector for every 400 students.
4. One set of 35 stereoscopes for every 400 students.
5. One 3¼" x 4¼" projector for every 400 students.
6. One opaque projector for each school.
7. One two-speed, portable 16 in. transcription player (complete with speaker) for each 200 students.
8. One table-type radio for each classroom.
9. One microphone for use with play-back or projector for each school.
10. Wall-type screens or suitable projection surface for each classroom.

As indicated previously, motion picture films do not constitute the sum total of visual aids. Excursions, photographs and prints, exhibits, specimens and models, graphic and pictorial charts, maps and globes, the stereograph, the lantern slide, and the still film find their respective places as instructional aids. Much research needs to be added to the existing studies to determine the distinctive contributions which each of these visual aids can make. They are instruments which the teacher can use to enhance the effectiveness of her work. They are not to be looked upon as a substitute for the teacher, for the textbook, or for other time-honored instrumentalities of the classroom.⁵³

From meager beginnings just prior to 1928, education by radio has grown to enormous proportions. By 1930, 12.3 per cent of the 627 licensed stations were owned and operated by educational institutions and 13 per cent of the broadcasting time of 271 commercial stations was considered educational. In 1948 the radio industry reported somewhat over 90 per cent of homes with radios and a total of 75 million radios in use. There are now about 960 broadcasting stations. Children begin to listen to the radio regularly at five or six years of age and by the time they reach third or fourth grade they are confirmed radio fans. Children's radio preferences run in favor of programs which contain a large element of adventure, crime, and comedy, although many children also like popular programs designed for adults. The typical elementary-school pupil listens to the radio at home about one and a half hours per day.

The use of radio in elementary schools started out with considerable

⁵² Helen Hardt Seaton, *A Measure for Audio-Visual Programs in Schools* (Washington, American Council on Education, 1944).

⁵³ James S. Kinder, *Audio-Visual Materials and Techniques* (New York, American Book Co., 1950); Edgar Dale, *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching* (New York, The Dryden Press, 1946); William H. Hartley, *A Guide to Audio-Visual Materials for Elementary School Social Studies* (New York, The Rambler Press, 1950).

gusto in the late 1930's; many Parent-Teacher Associations engaged in money-making activities so that centralized sound systems with radio attachment could be installed in their schools, and the majority of newly constructed elementary schools included such installations. The amount of use made of radio broadcasts in schools raises some questions about the wisdom of the expensive installations. In some areas the tendency is to provide individual radios for each classroom instead of a centralized system.

Schools report that their use of radio broadcasts has been hampered because of schedule difficulties, unsatisfactory radio equipment, poor radio reception, programs unsuited to young children, and lack of teacher interest. Since the radio has demonstrated itself as a most effective medium of mass communication it is unfortunate that elementary schools generally have not discovered more extensive ways of using it. Perhaps a frontal attack should be made in the direction of augmenting state and local broadcasts to supplement those now placed on the air by national broadcasting companies. Ohio, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Texas have well established state programs. Cities like Cleveland and Pittsburgh have pioneered in local broadcasts to their own schools. Another avenue that schools should explore more widely is the use of recordings of radio programs. Recordings can be fitted into a teaching schedule more readily than live broadcasts.⁵⁴

Television is now knocking at the schoolhouse door as radio was in 1930. Several large school systems are experimenting with the classroom possibilities of this newest tool in the kit of scientific materials for learning. Early in 1949 the first major television network was announced. It was sponsored jointly by the National Education Association, the National Broadcasting Company, and the Boards of Education of New York City, Philadelphia, and Baltimore.

Television's use in elementary schools has several limitations. The initial installation is quite expensive. Broadcasting is limited to line-of-vision distances, i.e., from stations sufficiently nearby to permit good reception. The staging of broadcasts is very expensive. These difficulties probably will be overcome as the number of television broadcasting stations increases and they become better distributed geographically. In March, 1951, the Federal Communications Commission set aside specified channels in the television area of the broadcasting spectrum for educational use. Eighty-two channel assignments in the very high frequency area and 127 channels in the ultra-high frequency area were reserved for noncommercial educational television stations. Educators generally are hoping that rapid progress can be made in adapting this valuable educational tool to effective school use.

⁵⁴ For an extended treatment of the use of radio in the elementary school, see Roy DeVerl Willey and Helen Ann Young, *Radio in Elementary Education* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1948).

STATE AND LOCAL RELATIONS IN CURRICULUM REVISION

Every elementary school is a part of a broader matrix of local, state, and national relationships. Although this country is proud of the degree of local autonomy and responsibility for schools and guards this prerogative jealously, one must not forget that a public school is not merely a local affair. Schools are an instrument of society as a whole and therefore owe responsibilities to the society at large. Citizens-to-be must become citizens in the larger society. School curricula, therefore, must be shaped in terms of the broader state, national, and even international orientation while at the same time doing the best possible job in meeting and serving local community needs.

Since the administration of public schools in this country is a state function, the local schools' orientation to the broader societal setting comes largely through professional literature, the activities and publications of regional and national professional organizations, the activities of state professional organizations, and the official relations with the laws and state administrative agencies in the state in which the school happens to be located. In the latter group a school may have official relations with the state health department, the state insurance commission, the state park board, and the state safety commission, as well as the state department of education. Our concern at this point is only with those official state relations which impinge upon the curriculum. The three most important of these are discussed in the succeeding paragraphs.

The people, through their elected representatives in state legislatures, have taken an active part in prescribing what is to be taught in their schools. Within each state there are subjects and activities (Table 10) which, as a result of legislative enactments, must be accorded a place in the school curriculum. Each school must see to it that the legal requirements are satisfied for that state. Since laws are sometimes difficult to revise or erase from the statutes, schools in some states find that legal prescriptions are a hindrance to the development of modern curricula. In some states the law requires that a whole semester or, in a few instances, a whole year be devoted to a study of state history. Among leaders in the social studies field it is becoming increasingly doubtful whether such an extended study of the history of one state is justified in view of the many other valuable things that should find a place in an elementary-school program. In Texas, for example, the law still requires that cotton grading be taught in the common schools. The law was passed decades ago when cotton raising was the chief occupation. Since then the economy of the state has changed radically. At present practically all forms of agriculture, mining, industry, and forestry are found in the state. This is a good example of how outmoded legislative prescriptions may impede curriculum revision.

TABLE 10: A. Subjects Required in the Various States by Legislative Authority *

NUMBER OF		NUMBER OF	
SUBJECTS	STATES	SUBJECTS	STATES
Agriculture	15	History (state)	23
Algebra	3	Humane treatment of animals	18
Arithmetic	27	Importance of animals and birds	15
Art	4	Manners	7
Bible	12	Manual training	3
Bookkeeping	2	Metric system	1
Citizenship	13	Morals	12
Civil government	21	Music	7
Constitution (federal)	35	Nature of alcoholic drinks	45
Constitution (state)	20	Patriotism	15
Consumers' coopération and coöperative marketing	1	Personal hygiene	13
Cotton grading	1	Physiology and hygiene	41
Declaration of Independence	5	Physical education	30
Dictionary	1	Preservation of birds and game	2
Domestic science	5	Prevention of communicable disease	11
Drawing	7	Reading	28
Elementary science	4	Safety	14
English (composition and gram- mar)	27	Sanitation	9
Fire prevention	17	Social and ethical outcomes	18
Forestry	2	Spanish	1
Geography	28	Spelling	27
Government (U. S.)	6	Thrift	6
Government (state)	5	Tobacco	4
History (U. S.)	29	Writing	27
		Total	667

B. Activities Required in the Various States by Legislative Authority *

ACTIVITIES	NUMBER OF STATES
American Indian day	1
Arbor day	19
Bird day	6
Dental inspection	13
Display of flag	45
Education week	2
Flag day	11
Flag exercises	15
Fire drill	28
Fire prevention day	1
Free school day	1
Good roads day	1
Labor day	2
Medical inspection	39
Memorial day	10
Patriotic songs	4
Prominent birthdays	26
State day	7
Temperance day	16
Thanksgiving day	1
Total	248

* Summarized from Raymond Fletcher, *The Role of the State in the Administration of Elementary Education*, unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Texas, 1944.

To the extent that instruction in elementary schools is closely associated with the content of textbooks, one must not overlook the controlling influence of textbooks which represent the concepts of their authors regarding curriculum content. In states in which the local school district has complete autonomy in the selection of textbooks, books may be chosen that will give maximum assistance in implementing curriculum concepts projected by the local faculty. Such a degree of flexibility in the selection of teaching materials does not exist in the 24 states in which a plan of state-wide adoption of basal texts is in vogue.⁵⁵ The adoption periods range from one to nine years, with five years as the most commonly prescribed period; the five-year adoption period prevails in six states. Even though the state adopted list may permit multiple choices, the options for any one subject and grade usually do not exceed five. A local district, therefore, may choose one of the three or five titles on the list or a proportionate number of each of the titles on the state adopted list. Even that amount of freedom in choosing books is seldom adequate for a school in which the best of instructional programs are in operation. State adoptions must thus be supplemented in numerous ways.

The third important relationship between the local school and state policies pertains to state courses of study and curriculum policies established by state departments of education. In some places state courses of study are highly prescriptive, thus giving the local school system relatively little freedom in curriculum-planning. In recent years, however, the trend has been away from highly prescriptive controls by the state and toward greater local autonomy. State curriculum bulletins are "guides to teaching" or "guides to curriculum-planning." State department staff members function on a consultative rather than a directive or inspectional basis. The role of the state department is conceived in terms of leadership and guidance. This kind of policy at the state level definitely recognizes participation in curriculum-planning by local school faculties as an essential feature of the in-service professional growth of teachers and administrators. It also creates a state climate in which local school systems are motivated to enlist their faculties in significant curriculum revision activities.

CURRICULUM REVISION IN THE LOCAL SCHOOL SYSTEM

Experience in curriculum revision programs during the past 30 years has given repeated emphasis to the importance of having the faculties of local school systems assume major responsibility for determining school programs in the communities in which they teach. An important basis for this trend is the discovery that teachers can be genuinely intelligent about

⁵⁵ J. V. Roberts, *Statutory Provisions for Textbook Selection and Adoption in the Forty-Eight States* (Charleston, W. Va., State Education Association, 1942).

the what, why, and how of their work only if they have had a major part in developing the curricula. In order to encourage curriculum revision activity in local school systems, state departments of education are providing leadership through consultative services rather than directives and prescriptive courses of study.

In considering the curriculum, local school authorities are confronted with three basic issues: (1) fundamental curriculum considerations, the technical aspects of which include the determination of the ultimate and immediate objectives of education, the experimental discovery of appropriate child activities and other materials of instruction, and the discovery of the most effective modes of selecting and organizing the activities of the respective grades; (2) adapting the curricula to the current and changing requirements; (3) planning for future community needs. The extent to which the staff in a typical school system can participate in these three forms of curriculum work is problematical. The elaborate fundamental research which is necessary to provide the evidence on which the foundations of a public-school program are to be established is not within the province of most school systems. Because of the limited training of the staff, crowded teaching programs, and limited finances, such comprehensive, fundamental research must be left to the state or the largest of the cities and specialized research centers. Rather than have each local community dissipate its energies in basic curriculum investigation it would be far better to have local systems concentrate their efforts upon the effective application of the best that has been produced by the profession. In many school systems the quality of educational service can be improved tremendously if effective adaptation and application is made of the best practices in leading educational centers. After all, the basic curriculum for public elementary education is rather universal, and its objectives are not highly specialized as one goes from city to city or from city to rural districts.

The need for local school faculties to engage in curriculum-planning has been an important factor in shifting many supervisory activities into in-service education enterprises centered in curriculum revision. Consequently present-day staff education activities are utilizing a variety of improved procedures whereby teachers and administrators can work democratically on local school improvement programs. One study which included 94 city school systems of all sizes showed that 17 were using some type of summer workshop; 21 released teachers at regular intervals for curriculum revision work; 34 employed some teachers during the entire summer; 42 had some provision for releasing teachers for textbook studies; 75 had some plan for releasing teachers for local demonstrations; 82 used outside consultants, whereas a variety of other procedures were employed by smaller proportions of the school systems.⁵⁶

⁵⁶ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Time and Funds for Curriculum Development* (Washington, N.E.A., 1951).

CURRICULUM AUTONOMY FOR THE INDIVIDUAL SCHOOL

Although there is much in elementary-school programs which can be universal on a national, state, or local system-wide basis, uniformity should never be allowed to become so standardized as to interfere with essential curriculum adaptations which should be made by each individual school in terms of its own clientele. All that has been learned about adjusting school programs to community circumstances and needs and about adapting instruction to individual differences of pupils would be lost if overemphasis were placed on uniformity.

One school in a city might be located in a high socio-economic neighborhood wherein most children have attended nursery schools and kindergartens and have traveled a great deal. Another school in the same city might be located in a neighborhood in which most children come from non-English-speaking homes of low income families. It may be that in the former school parents crowd to have their children enter school at as early an age as possible, whereas in the latter school parents tend to delay school entrance until the lower limit of compulsory school attendance is reached. Not only should curricula in first and second grades be quite different in these two schools, but instruction throughout the grades should be adjusted to the differences in background and experiences which these two groups of pupils bring to school.

Another contrast that vivifies the need for varying amounts of curriculum autonomy for individual schools is the difference between urban and rural schools. In the urban school teaching units, the illustrations used, and the community resources used in teaching should draw heavily upon the experience backgrounds of the pupils and the community resources accessible to the school. If the same principle is followed in a rural school it would mean many differences between the content and activities used in the city and the rural school. It would not necessarily mean differences in educational philosophy, the objectives sought, or the basic orientation or design of the curriculum. It would simply mean that each school was making intelligent educational use of its setting and resources.

LEADERSHIP IN THE INDIVIDUAL SCHOOL

The fact that each individual school should have a degree of autonomy in curriculum matters places considerable responsibility upon the principal and teachers in each school. In a certain sense the curriculum which actually functions in a school rests in the hands of the classroom teacher. It is she who administers to children through her thought, word, and

action the educational theories and policies of the school system. Hence it is important that teachers be intelligent about the curriculum. There is urgent need in the preparation of teachers for types of training which will give them an intelligent understanding of the school curriculum and its functions. All too frequently in the past a prospective teacher was rarely if ever asked his theories about the curriculum. It was not expected that he should have any. The important question was whether he was competent to teach—the material to be taught being always taken for granted. The eternal efficacy of the traditional curriculum to achieve the unformulated goal of public education seemed to be taken for granted with a security that was beyond question. Such uninformed procedure on the part of the teacher can hardly be accepted in the future if it is agreed that modern education with its scientific technique, the use and proper interpretation of mental and achievement tests, and the recognition of individual differences demands in each classroom a highly trained professional worker.

In addition to being in the most strategic position to interpret properly the curriculum to children, there are a number of important ways in which teachers can contribute to curriculum development. They may participate in the determination of the fundamental objectives of the curriculum as a whole and of its several departments. They may also assist in the selection of content, materials of instruction, and activities, as well as the discovery of the most effective modes of organizing materials and their experimental placement in the grades. As teachers have become more versatile in curriculum work they have given invaluable assistance in the writing of course-of-study materials. Many school systems find that one of the greatest handicaps in the speedy progression of a program for curriculum revision is the dearth of teachers who can write and produce the necessary outlines and directions for general distribution.

The principal, too, has a number of important relationships to the curriculum, its reorganization and administration. In most cities principals are requested to serve as members of committees working on curriculum problems. Although, as a matter of policy, principals may not be appointed as chairmen of the various committees, teachers look to them for leadership and constructive criticism. As a member of several or all of the committees the principal is in a strategic position to obtain a broad view of the entire curriculum program, to coordinate the work of the various groups, and to keep his staff informed of the progress of the general curriculum-revision program.

In addition to and quite apart from his participation in the construction of curricula, the principal has important functions regarding the administration of the curriculum. As a supervisor the principal is called upon to give needed assistance in putting a new course of study into operation. It is he who must assume leadership in adapting the accepted curriculum to the

peculiar needs of the local unit of which he has charge and in selecting textbooks and instructional materials. Within his building teachers may be organized into small groups or committees for studying curriculum problems which are peculiar to the locality, for developing those phases in which the general curriculum must be modified to meet conditions in the local unit, and for the selection of materials and their coordination with the changing curriculum. Frequently it is through this field of work that a principal can exert professional leadership which will bear unusual fruit in the professional growth of teachers.

As an administrative and supervisory officer the principal is continuously responsible for the administration of the curriculum in his local school. The time schedule, the instructional program of teachers, the classification of children, in fact, all phases of school work must be organized and operated in accordance with the kind of curriculum (broadly conceived) which it is hoped will function in the school. Perhaps it is not presumptuous to say that it is within the power of the principal to control the kind of curriculum which it will be possible for teachers to provide for children in the classrooms.

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4

General Features of Elementary-School Organization

THEORETICALLY THE ORGANIZATION of a school is the administrative expression of educational theory. Organization may be viewed as the structure or the framework within which teachers, pupils, supervisors, and others operate to carry on the activities of the school. Theoretically this structure should vary according to the differences in educational theory underlying the objectives, curriculum, and method. One might reasonably assume that the organization or framework within which teachers and pupils operate would be different in a school accepting the organismic view of learning, the child development view of the curriculum, and the experimental philosophy of education than it would be in a school professing rather singular reliance upon the stimulus-response theory of learning, the subject-matter view of the curriculum, and idealism as a guiding philosophy. The function of organization is to set the stage and to facilitate the application in the classroom of the kind of education one desires for children and the method whereby children may get it.

In theory one may accept the statements in the preceding paragraph. As one studies current practice one becomes aware that the spirit may be willing but the flesh is weak. There are many obstacles which hinder school people in achieving perfect harmony between the accepted educational theory and the organization of the school. One may be convinced of the continuous nature of child growth and development, but the school has not yet achieved an organization which permits continuous pupil progress because teachers may not have had the time or opportunity to acquire competence in handling the teaching process essential for continuous pupil progress; instructional supplies may be inadequate, or classes too large. Conventionalism acquired through long years of usage may be slow in dissolving, or certain dominant personalities may adhere to educational viewpoints which are not in harmony with the viewpoints held by a majority of the teachers. It is because of these or other possible reasons that the typical elementary school at a given time presents such a curious mixture of educational theories and organizational features. Frequently this curious mixture of theories and practices contains many actual contradictions. Inconsistencies between educational theory and organizational practices are

not necessarily to be deplored, unless the conflicts are serious or the leaders in the school are totally unaware of them. To the extent that democratic procedures are used to effect reorganization, one may anticipate that every school will continuously evidence certain organizational maladjustments. The changing inconsistencies may characterize transitional stages in an ever-improving program.

ORGANIZATION DEFINED

Words in the English language are apt to have so many different meanings and shades of meaning that communication becomes difficult unless terms are clearly defined at the outset. So it is with the word *organization*. If you ask the typical elementary-school principal or superintendent to tell you about the organization of his elementary school, he usually gives one or both of two answers. He will say: "Oh, we have a six-year elementary school" (or a seven-year or eight-year school, as the case may be); or "We have a platoon organization"; or "We have a departmentalized set-up." Although each of these answers correctly identifies an element of organization, no one of the answers gives an adequate concept of organization as applied to an elementary school. Any one of the answers reveals a very restricted concept of organization and implies that organization is a singular thing. Actually, the concept of organization as applied to an elementary school is a multiple or many-phased idea, as will be explained later.

The dictionary definition of organization which is applicable here reads as follows: "an organized structure, body, or being," "the mode in which something is organized," or "systematic arrangement for a definite purpose." When applied to schools, organization means structure or framework or arrangement, a state or manner of being. It is something which exists, even though it may be of an intangible nature. In Chapter 3 the design or organization of the curriculum was defined as the way in which the components of the curriculum are arranged for teaching purposes. Diagrams were used to portray the arrangement of the subject-taught-in-isolation, the correlated, and the broad fields types of curriculum design.

The meaning of organization can be envisioned rather clearly if one thinks of a building. The blueprints for a home will show whether the building has one or more stories. It will show the over-all outside dimensions. It will show the number, size, and arrangement of rooms. The blueprint will show the kinds of provisions that have been made for meal preparation, serving, and eating, provisions for sleeping, and so forth. Height of ceilings, location of doors and windows, and accessibility to garage and garden will be indicated. In other words, the blueprint reveals the organization, the basic framework of the house. If a home built according to a given blueprint is visited, the organization of the house can be seen in the

actual structure. In similar fashion the blueprints for an elementary school show the organization of the physical plant in which schooling is to take place. A visit to an actual school will reveal the broad framework, the arrangement of space for school purposes. We may call this the organization of the school plant.

Another illustration of organization is the plan used for the administration of basal textbooks. Most schools have a bookroom or at least some place in which textbooks are stored during the summer months. The way the books are arranged in the bookroom, the procedures used in checking them in and out, and the method of accounting for books are all elements of the scheme used for the administration of textbooks. It represents the school's organization for the management and use of textbooks.

Thus we can return to the original definition of organization. It means structure, framework, or arrangement. It is the general plan for operation, the over-all scheme in terms of which certain activities will be carried forward.

THE ROLE OF ORGANIZATION

There are some folks who decry the existence of organization. To them the term itself and all ideas associated with it are obnoxious. They feel that organization is a curse that interferes with effective and flexible execution of the educational program. There are others who are not quite so violent in their criticism of organization but who feel that organization frequently is a hindrance rather than a help. No doubt everyone who reads these pages could give some examples of how organization has impeded a given enterprise. The difficulty, however, lies, not in organization per se, but in the nature of the organization. Inadequate conceptions of the role of organization and of the nature and function of organization are usually to blame.

Organization is absolutely necessary (in fact, inescapable) if an enterprise is to proceed in an efficient and successful manner. One can hardly envision a teacher meeting a class of 30 or more pupils without some rather definite plans as to how she will work with pupils and how the day is to be used. Neither can one imagine the faculty of a whole school undertaking their duties in a school devoid of organization. Chaos would inevitably prevail. Consequently, we should not shun organization. Instead, we should study organization and understand the ways in which organization can be made the servant of the educational task. It follows, therefore, that the first important point about the role of organization is that organization is essential to effective operation.

Organization has a creative aspect in that it creates the structure, the environmental framework within which activities may take place. Until there is some kind of organization it is difficult to get started or to carry on. This

point can be illustrated by referring to the examples in the preceding section. Until the basic structure of a home has been completed it is difficult or impossible to engage in the activities of family living. Until the basic features of a school plant have been brought into being it is difficult to conduct a school. Similar comments could be made about the use of textbooks, instructional supplies, classification of pupils, curriculum design, as well as many other elements of organization. The first function of organization, therefore, is to structure the setting for the operation of each phase of school work.

The second important role of organization is to create the kind of framework which will facilitate and make possible the kind of educational program that is desired. This second function is really a corollary of the first because the *type* of framework is usually an automatic accompaniment of the initial creation of organization. For example, as curriculum design is decided upon, the *type* of design to be used is an original aspect of the designing process. Some form of organization of the curriculum is imperative, but the kind of curriculum design that is developed will determine in large measure the kind of teaching that will ensue. If one expects teachers to engage in rich, broadly integrated teaching through experience units, one must develop a curriculum design that will permit that kind of work with pupils. If one wants the school to give major attention to mental hygiene, social and emotional adjustment, and character and personality development, one must have an organization for grouping of pupils that will make possible such emphases. If one wants the school curriculum to include lunchroom and dramatic activities, the design of the school building must include lunchroom facilities and an auditorium. If library services are to provide generous enrichment of classroom teaching, one must have an organization for library service that will permit this objective. In other words, the type of organization that is designed will determine in large measure what kinds of things can happen in a school program. Another way of saying it is that organization creates the kinds of structured settings which will give maximum opportunity for each phase of school life to occur in the desired fashion at the highest quality level. Unless organization renders this kind of service, it actually interferes with the operation of a good school program.

A third aspect of organization about which our thinking should be clear consists of the restrictive effects which it has on school activities. A classroom that is 22' x 30' and contains 30 or more pupils cannot be expected to accommodate certain activities which could take place conveniently in a 28' x 36' classroom. Science, library, hobby, and construction centers are feasible in the larger classroom but difficult, if not impossible, in the smaller one. The design of the classroom thus has a restrictive influence upon teaching. A subjects-taught-in-isolation type of curriculum creates many controls and restrictive influences over the character and quality of

teaching, the use of basal texts, the demand for services from the library, and the motivation which pupils find in the instructional program. The organization for instruction determines the degree of departmentalization, if any, that prevails, and this in turn influences the extent of curriculum integration that is possible and the extent to which each teacher has a chance to know well all the pupils she teaches. The restrictive effect of organization is frequently overlooked and, as a result, school programs and the people working therein are expected to produce results which are impossible under the existing organization.

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

Thinking with reference to the organization of a school is sometimes complicated by the fact that the terms *organization* and *administration* are frequently used in one breath as if they constituted an inseparable phrase. No criticism of the "joined-together" use of these terms is intended; the duties and activities of organizing and administering are so closely related that at times it seems difficult, if not useless, to try to separate the meaning of these two terms, especially when the responsibilities for organizing and administering fall to the same person. No doubt there is no special merit in a highly technical differentiation between organization and administration. Some elementary consideration may be of value, however, in clarifying one's thinking about the organization of elementary schools.

Organization as such has been defined and illustrated in the preceding sections. Administration is the act or process of administering. One of the activities of administration is the planning, and the bringing into existence, of an organization or a machinery whereby the work may proceed. Administration has many other duties besides that of planning and establishing organizational set-ups for conducting the enterprise. School budgets must be prepared and revenues secured, expended, and accounted for; school sites must be selected and buildings planned, constructed, and operated; teachers and other employees must be selected, paid, promoted, and retired; the school census must be taken and children's attendance at school secured, recorded, and reported, and so on to a long list of administrative responsibilities. In order to expedite administrative responsibilities in many of these areas, various organizations or forms of organization are created.

The broad interrelated field commonly called "organization and administration" may thus be thought of as consisting of three parts. Organization as such is a structure or plan, the creation of which is a function of administration. In order that an organization may operate in accordance with accepted theory and the basic principles inherent in the underlying philosophy, it is usually necessary to develop and to apply certain administrative or educational policies. These policies become guiding principles or opera-

tional guideposts to those who endeavor to function within the organization. The techniques or procedures employed in operating the organization in accordance with established policies constitute administration.

An example may help to clarify these relationships. Suppose community circumstances are such that the board of education finds it desirable to establish a policy which states that all pupils who do not go home for the noon meal must eat their lunches at school (i.e., on the school grounds and not in neighborhood public restaurants), that the school shall make available a complete noon meal for all pupils who do not wish to carry their own lunches and who do not go home for the noon meal, and that the school-lunch program shall be self-supporting. These decisions by the board of education represent basic community policy and set into motion all of the relationships between organization and administration. As soon as the school board decision is made, the administrator must get busy and create within each school, by remodeling or additional construction, an organization of the school plant which will provide facilities for preparing, serving, and eating meals. This phase of it could be called school plant designing and illustrates the role of administration in creating organization.

But there are still other elements of organization to be brought into being. There must be an organization of personnel to operate the lunchroom. Perhaps a system-wide lunchroom manager is needed. The lunchroom in each school will need a head dietician or cook and a number of helpers. How much staff, their qualifications, their daily period of service, and their respective duties must be determined. Within each school a plan must be devised for having children pay for the lunches they buy. Shall the collections be made in each classroom or at the end of the serving counter in the lunchroom? Each building must also have a schedule in accordance with which the different classes come to the lunchroom. There are thus minor organizational patterns within the larger organization for school-lunch programs.

Administrative policies are evident at many points in the preceding narrative. Among them are these: (a) each school shall provide a complete noon meal for those who do not wish to carry their own lunches; (b) each school lunchroom shall have an adequate staff; and (c) the lunchrooms shall be self-supporting. Then in each building certain additional items require policy. Some of them are:

1. Payment for the meals shall be collected at the end of the serving counter.
2. Children from indigent homes shall be given appropriate tasks whereby they can earn their meals.
3. If a staggered lunch schedule must be maintained, children from primary grades shall come for their lunches before the older children are scheduled.

4. Children who carry their own lunches shall gather in one or more designated rooms during the lunch period. This is not the best policy but is used here to make the illustration more vivid.

5. Each classroom in which children who have brought their own lunches eat shall be supervised by a teacher.

6. Teachers not assigned to classroom supervision during the lunch period shall eat with their classes.

7. In the lunchroom children and teacher shall be seated in class groups.

In a given school these several matters of policy might be decided differently from the examples given. The examples are intended merely to serve as illustrations of administrative policies. After policy items have been determined, the staff of the school must develop procedures for putting policy into operation. How shall we identify the pupils who need to earn their lunches? What kinds of tasks may they be given? What shall be the details of the schedule under which the different classes come to the lunchroom? How can we operate a rotation plan so that each teacher will have her turn at supervising the classrooms in which some of the children will be eating the lunches brought from home? How can we keep children from losing their lunch money during the forenoon? How can we provide supervision during the lunch period for classes whose teachers cannot accompany them because of other assignments? All of these problems require carefully developed procedures in order that basic policies may be carried out within the framework of organization.

The preceding narrative illustrates the interwoven and interdependent relationships between organization and administration as well as the three parts of the administrative and organizational problem. Basic policies create the need for organization and, at the same time, identify some of the essential elements which organization should have. One of the functions of administration is to create organization, as well as the basic policies which shall govern the operation of a given enterprise. Agreed-upon policies and organizational features require appropriate procedures for their implementation. Administration must develop the procedures and then see to it that the whole activity moves forward smoothly in accordance with the plans that have been established. Administration must also be engaged in continuous evaluation and revision so that continuing improvement in organization, policies, and procedures may result.

ORGANIZATION FOR ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

Another angle from which organization should be examined is its purpose and operational locus. The usual diagrams of organization found in books on school administration represent "organization for administration

and supervision." Such terms as "line organization," "line and staff," "dual," "coordinate," and "cooperative" are familiar. In essence these diagrams show the flow and allocation of authority and responsibility. The "line" aspect of the diagrams show the flow of authority from the board of education to the superintendent of schools, from him to the principals, and from them to teachers and pupils. Staff locations indicate groups of personnel who have specific system-wide services to perform but usually have only an advisory relationship to the decision-making activities. Staff persons have definite tasks and responsibilities, but these duties are largely in the nature of "service rendering" to the groups and individuals who are located in the line relationships.

The typical diagrams of organization are schematic portrayals of the way in which the school staff has been grouped in order that all of the jobs associated with the operation of a school program get performed properly. The diagrams show the operational locus (in given schools, in the central office, and so forth) of each group, the *kinds* of duties assigned to each, and their place in the decision-making sequence. The diagrams of organization, therefore, represent graphic schematics of the arrangement of the school staff *for* the purpose of operating the school program.

The latter interpretation of the customary diagrams of organization has been detailed vividly by Pittenger in his recent book on *Local Public School Administration*.¹ He discusses the idea in terms of "organization of local school-district personnel." Several forms of the traditional organization are described. Figure 5 reproduces his portrayal of a simple line and staff plan of organization. Figure 6 shows one of his functional groupings which incorporates modern concepts of democracy in administration and supervision.

Organization *for* administration and supervision, or organization *for* operating the school program is an essential aspect of the broad sphere of organization. It might even be thought of as the first level or the initial place at which organization must take place. However, this is not the only zone in which organization finds its place in elementary education. There are at least two other zones within which organization reveals its place in elementary schools. One of these areas involves gross features of organization, such as length of school year, length of the period of elementary education, and so forth. The second additional area pertains to the facets of internal organization within a given school. The examples used in the two preceding sections of this chapter are illustrative of the facets of internal organization. Both of these additional zones are discussed in greater detail in the paragraphs which follow.

¹ Benjamin F. Pittenger, *Local Public School Administration* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1951).

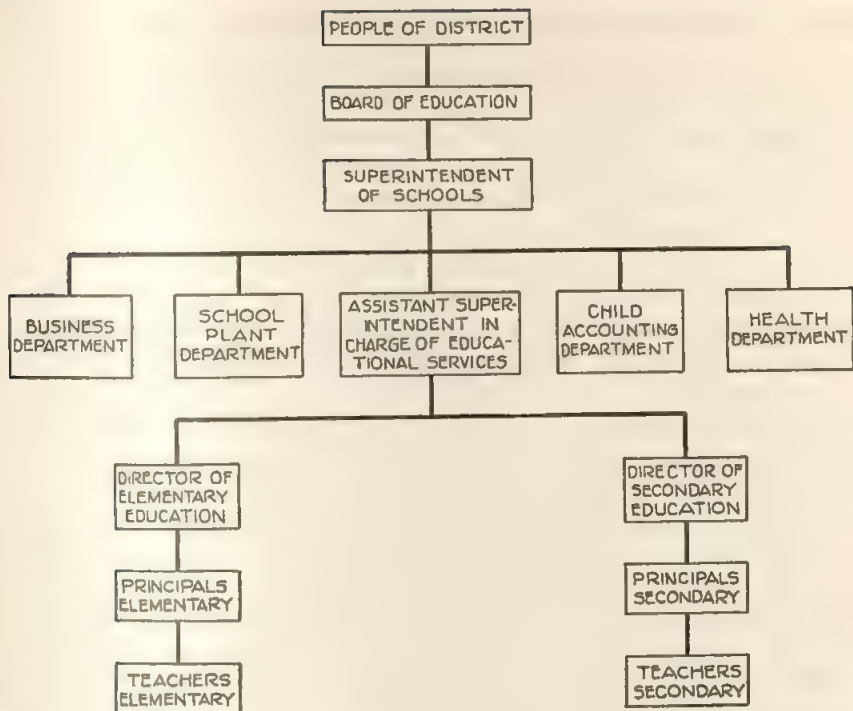


FIG. 5: Simplified sketch of line-and-staff plan of organization of local school personnel. By permission from *Local Public School Administration*, by Benjamin F. Pittenger, p. 47. Copyright, 1951, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

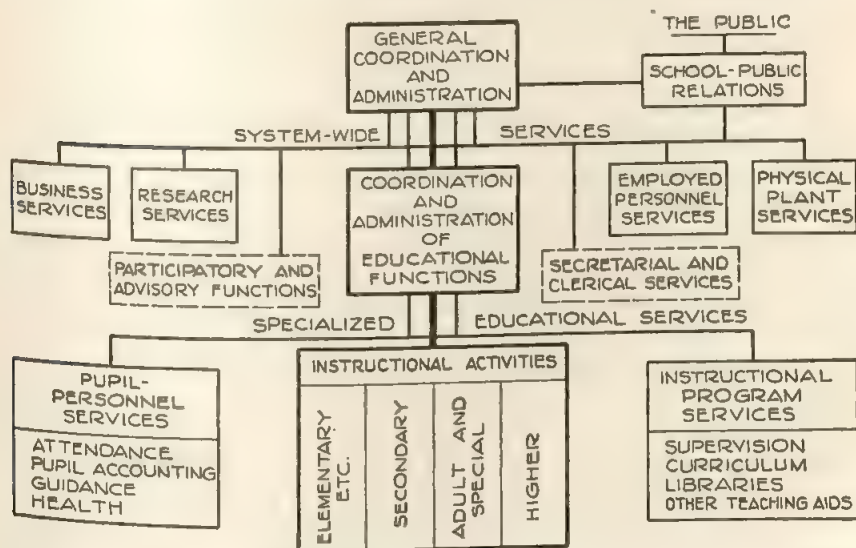


FIG. 6: Function of local public-school personnel. By permission from *Local Public School Administration*, by Benjamin F. Pittenger, p. 65. Copyright, 1951, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

GROSS FEATURES OF ORGANIZATION

Some aspects of organization are so remote from the individual school that they are easily overlooked. In the United States the education function is left to the states. Each state, through its constitution and legislative acts, has assumed the responsibility for education; therefore it is, in a very real sense, the basic organization for education in this country. To discharge the education function each of the states has created local school districts and has bequeathed to them certain duties and responsibilities. The local districts, however, are serving merely as agents of the state.

The local district, with its geographical size and shape, its population, its topography and resources, and certain other features, constitutes a second feature of organization. The number, size, and shape of school districts is constantly changing. The characteristics of the local district have a great deal to do with the organization of the local school. Some districts are very small (District No. 3, Nevada County, Arkansas, is less than a square mile), whereas others are very large (San Juan County, Utah, is one school district and includes nearly 8,000 square miles). The shape of the district also has a great deal to do with the kind of organization a school may have. Some districts have a regular and compact shape, whereas others, when outlined on a map, look like the most intricate pieces of a puzzle. Density of population has similar bearing on the organization of a local school. A school district may have plenty of area, boundary lines that coincide closely with community boundaries, and roads, but the population may be so sparse that several small schools must be maintained at distant points in the district. In some states township high-school districts are superimposed upon a number of elementary-school districts with more or less legally fixed boundaries as to the grades to be taught in each type of district. All of these factors pertaining to the organization of the local school district affect the organization of a given school, or, in other words, constitute an organizational feature of a local school.

Another feature of organization consists of the age range of children or the number of grades to be taught in a given school. If only three age groups are to be taught, the organization may be quite different than it would be if nine grades were to be accommodated. The number of children and their age distribution are closely allied factors. Length of the school year, length of the school day, the extent of system-wide controls to which each school in the district must conform, and the degree of autonomy accorded the individual school are other factors which influence organization.

In some schools or school systems unique plans for elementary education have been developed or some feature is given prominence in the school's organization. Table 4 in Chapter 1 listed the better known earlier innovations in elementary-school organization. Most of these innovations, such as the Batavia, Pueblo, Cambridge, North Denver, and Santa Barbara con-

centric plans, disappeared as their sponsors left the scene or as their essential elements became incorporated into the more typical practices.² Some of the more recent departures are still to be found in the communities in which they were originally developed or in others in which the idea was adopted. The more prominent of the latter group are discussed below.

THE PLATOON SCHOOL

In an endeavor to devise a plan of organization in which a program of studies and instructional procedures in keeping with the nature of the child could be carried out effectively, Superintendent William A. Wirt introduced in Bluffton, Indiana, in 1900, what has been known as the *work-study-play* or *platoon school*. The traditional elementary school with its emphasis on subject-matter knowledges had been deemed inadequate for training children for responsible citizenship in a complex social order. To give expression to a growing social philosophy of education and to provide a school in which children could really be concerned with the "business of living" instead of continued emphasis on deferred values (needs of adult life) and in which three major aspects of child life—work, study, and play—could be given proportionate emphasis, it was deemed necessary to make radical modifications in the organization of the school. "It might truthfully be said that John Dewey furnished the educational philosophy upon which William Wirt built the first platoon school and from which the platoon-school philosophy of to-day has developed."³ A general definition of the platoon school would characterize it as a plan of organization which provides for the division of the pupils of the school into two groups, called platoons, and which provides a schedule of classes arranged so that one platoon is studying the fundamental subjects in home rooms while the other platoon is engaged with activity subjects in special rooms. In this way the "duplicate" feature of the platoon school brings about economies in the use of the school plant.⁴ A secondary purpose of the platoon school is to provide an

² Henry J. Otto, "Historical Sketches of Administration Innovations," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. XX (March, 1934), pp. 161-172.

³ R. D. Case, *The Platoon School in America* (Stanford University, Cal., Stanford University Press, 1931), p. 3.

⁴ The fundamental object of the platoon organization is to provide an administrative device by which all of the subjects in the present-day curriculum may receive proper emphasis, and may be presented under conditions that best make for the realization of the social aims of education.

To one who believes in a democracy, the aim of education is to enable each individual to develop to the fullest extent his individual powers while doing those things which are beneficial to society as a whole. Progressive educational thinkers are becoming daily more convinced that the big, impelling motive in education is the social motive. All of our schools, elementary, intermediate, secondary, and collegiate, must in the future strive to realize more fully the seven great social aims of education. The platoon school does this in a marked degree. C. L. Spain, *The Platoon School* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1924), p. 48.

organization through which the most effective use of the school plant may be made.

The sponsors of the work-study-play schools maintain that through the platoon type of organization it is possible to provide specifically for different groups of activities, each group contributing definitely to one or more of the general aims of education. The school program for each group of children is arranged in such a way that one-half of the time is devoted to what are called the fundamentals, while the other half of the day is given over to special subjects and activities. The fundamentals, usually consisting of reading, arithmetic, writing, spelling, language, history, and geography, are taught in home rooms. Specially equipped facilities are commonly provided for such subjects as art, music, physical education, auditorium, library, nature study, home economics, and manual arts.

The so-called "tool subjects" or "fundamentals" are taught in the home room, which is considered the regular school home of the pupil and is a place in which a student is under the direction and tutelage of one teacher for nearly half of each school day. Through this arrangement the home-room teacher may become somewhat of a specialist in teaching the academic subjects. The fact that she teaches several of the basic subjects to the same group of pupils ought to enable her to integrate this work for the pupil and to become more thoroughly familiar with the needs of individual pupils. Attention has already been called to the fact that one-half of the time is devoted to the work in the home room.

The reader will recognize that no hard and fast lines can be drawn between the subjects or activities provided and the particular aims of education toward which they contribute, yet there are perhaps some activities which contribute more toward certain objectives than to others. Contributions toward the "worthy-use-of-leisure" objective are sought particularly through such special subjects as art, music, literature, and library. Each of these is usually taught by special teachers in carefully equipped rooms.

The health program encompasses a variety of activities. Adequate gymnasiums and spacious outdoor playgrounds with regularly scheduled gymnasium periods constitute essential features of a platoon-school organization. In addition to this, play periods and systematic health instruction are provided. In most schools an endeavor is made to have the health-service department, through its clinic, medical, dental, and nursing service, cooperate closely with the other health-education activities of the school.

Outcomes in the field of civic-social-moral responsibility are sought particularly through instruction in the social studies and the auditorium. The latter assumes an important place in platoon schools and is one of their distinguishing features. The auditorium is recognized as the socializing, integrating, and correlating unit in the school. The social motive is predominant in all the activities carried on therein. Through the programs and projects which are developed during the auditorium periods it is

hoped that all of the child's school experiences will be integrated in a fashion not readily attainable through other methods. Endeavors are made to have the work from all the other departments of the school contribute toward the unifying experiences of the auditorium. Although the distinctive contributions of the auditorium work have not been isolated and determined, it is believed that as research and progress in this field continue, the auditorium will become a more important aspect of school programs than it now is. Among the ways in which contributions toward the civic-social aims are sought should also be mentioned the longer school day and the directed playground work on Saturdays, which are found in some platoon schools located in centers where it seems desirable to extend the school's influence over pupils during out-of-school hours. The longer school day and the Saturday playground direction are not essential features of platoon organization.

One of the features of platoon organization not so commonly found in other types of organization is teaching on the departmental plan. A report from 901 platoon schools in 154 cities showed that in 76.9 per cent of the schools all grades were platooned; 23.1 per cent of the schools left out the first grade; 18.9 per cent left out the first and second grades; while 10.3 per cent did not include the first three grades in the departmental organization.⁵ The kindergarten, as a rule, is not a part of the platoon schedule, although housed in the same building.

The reader may have inferred from certain statements made above that the platoon organization, to be complete, requires a school plant peculiarly adapted to its program. The platoon type of organization is very flexible so that it can be adapted to many different kinds of situations. Its flexibility is manifest by the fact that hardly a single city has adopted the work-study-play program exactly as it has been developed at Gary; it can hardly be said that there is a standard plan of organization to which most platoon schools try to conform. About 70 per cent of the platoon schools in the country to-day are housed in old buildings, some of which have been altered to accommodate better the new organization, while others are being used without remodeling.⁶ Although new buildings are not essential, it is desirable to have a school plant in which are found the facilities deemed necessary for carrying out the activities of a broader curriculum which this type of organization makes possible. Among the essential plant features are the auditorium, the gymnasium, spacious outdoor grounds on which a variety of group activities and games may be conducted, the library, and specially designed and equipped rooms for the special subjects.

One might anticipate that any administrative plan which requires a high degree of organization through the division of pupils of each grade into two platoons, the scheduling of classes for the special and the home-room

⁵ Case, *op. cit.*, p. 51.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 68.

subjects, the combination of age and grade groups for auditorium and gymnasium work, and the large amount of pupil traffic from one class to another, would set up so much administrative machinery that the individual pupil would be lost sight of in the machine-like routine. Although no objective data are available as to the extent to which the individual needs of pupils are provided for in platoon schools as compared to non-platoon schools, the platoon organization as such does not preclude the recognition of individual differences of pupils. Some sponsors maintain that the platoon type of organization is uniquely adapted to make possible the recognition of individual difference. Administrative devices for this purpose which have been incorporated as a part of some platoon schools are ability grouping, subject promotion, special-help classes on Saturdays, summer make-up classes, and permitting pupils to be excused from play periods or classes in which they are doing work above the average so additional time may be spent on difficult subjects. In some schools, particularly those in Detroit, a large amount of individualization similar to the Winnetka technique is carried on.

Like many innovations, the platoon school has been subjected to critical analysis in a variety of ways. One objection frequently raised is that so much time is spent on other activities that training in the fundamental knowledges and skills is neglected. Data which have been gathered show that as much time is spent on fundamentals in platoon as in other schools.⁷ Such studies as have been made to evaluate the platoon schools indicate that pupils trained under the work-study-play regime do about as well in subject-matter achievements as pupils in non-platoon schools.⁸ These achievements are obtained in spite of the fact that the platoon type of organization makes possible economies in teachers' salaries as well as in building costs.

Another objection which is commonly voiced is the lack of integrated educational experience for the pupil resulting from departmental teaching. The implications of this factor will be discussed more fully in a subsequent chapter in which programs for instruction are analysed. It seems unfortunate that the endeavors which have so far been made to evaluate the platoon plan have failed to gather objective evidence upon those features which are held to be the distinct contributions of the work-study-play type of organization. Perhaps this lack of data is accounted for by the fact that objective measurements in these fields have been difficult to obtain.

In the absence of critical and complete evaluations and in the face of the retarding influence of tradition and criticisms, the platoon type of

⁷ Spain, *op. cit.*, p. 168.

⁸ *Ibid.*, Ch. IV; S. A. Courtis, *The Gary Public Schools: Measurement of Classroom Products* (New York, General Education Board, 1919); H. P. Shepherd, "Some Platoon School Results," *Platoon School*, Vol. 4 (February, 1931), pp. 176-180; F. C. Ayer, *Studies in Administrative Research*, Department of Research, Seattle Public Schools, *Bulletin* No. 1 (June 1, 1924), pp. 49-93.

organization has received favorable recognition in this country. Starting more or less as a novelty in one school in Gary, Indiana, in 1908 (the platoon school which Superintendent Wirt organized in Bluffton in 1900 was changed back to the traditional plan when Wirt left that city to go to Gary), the plan was gradually adopted, although in many modified forms, by other cities in forty-one states.⁹ In 1948 only 8 per cent of 1598 school systems from which reports were received reported that one or more of their schools was operated on the platoon plan. The percentage of school systems having one or more platoon schools ranged from 31 in cities of over 100,000 population to 4 in cities of 2500 to 4999 population. Fifty-five per cent of those who had platoon schools said that they were "on the way out."¹⁰

THE WINNETKA AND MCDADE PLANS

The most thoroughgoing attempt to break the class lockstep procedure which has characterized the graded elementary school¹¹ since its general adoption¹² was initiated by Frederic L. Burk in the training school of the San Francisco State Teachers College in 1913.¹³ Burk's plan of individual instruction was not introduced into public schools, however, until nearly a decade after its inception at the California normal school. Although certain features of the program have been adopted by school systems in various parts of the country,¹⁴ the most intensive development of its possibilities as a plan of public-school organization and procedure has taken place in the elementary schools of Winnetka, Illinois, under the direction of Superintendent Carleton W. Washburne¹⁵ and in a number of elementary

⁹ Case, *op. cit.*, p. 26. In a more recent article in *The Platoon School*, Vol. 7 (February, 1933), R. D. Case reports that the number of cities using the platoon system was two and one-half times as large as the number using the plan in 1929.

¹⁰ "Trends in City-School Organization, 1938 to 1948," *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 27, No. 1 (February, 1949), pp. 17-18.

¹¹ E. E. White, Superintendent of Public Instruction, State of Ohio, "Several Problems in Graded School Management," *Addresses and Proceedings of the N.E.A.* (1874), p. 254.

¹² W. J. Shearer, *The Grading of Schools* (New York, H. P. Smith Publishing Co., 1899), p. 21.

¹³ Several monographs and bulletins describing the individual instruction technique and materials from kindergarten through Grade 8 were published by Dr. Burk (deceased, 1924) and his associates between 1913 and 1916, but a ruling by the California state attorney general prohibited further publication by the normal school. This placed a distinct handicap upon the development of the individual technique at the Teachers College. It remained for some of Burk's associates, particularly Dr. Carleton W. Washburne at Winnetka, Illinois, to develop the method and apply it to public school situations.

¹⁴ U. S. Bureau of Education, "Cities Reporting the Use of Homogeneous Grouping and of the Winnetka Technique and the Dalton Plan," *City School Leaflet* No. 22 (December, 1926).

¹⁵ The work at Winnetka was begun soon after Dr. Washburne was elected superintendent of schools in May, 1919. The individual technique was well under way during the 1920-1921 school year.

schools in Chicago under the direction of former Assistant Superintendent James E. McDade.

The individual-instruction, or Winnetka technique, as it is better known, has as its primary objective the adaptation of instruction to the abilities of pupils. It is primarily a method of curriculum organization, but to make it possible to put the theories regarding the curriculum into operation, it was necessary to devise an organization through which those theories could be given expression. Specially prepared instructional materials,¹⁰ classroom teaching procedures, and the organization of the school are properly adjusted to enable those in charge of the school and its instruction to apply in practice the theories of education which underlie the program. Schools organized on this plan are excellent illustrations of how organization and administrative procedures may be shaped to facilitate the expression of an educational philosophy which is deemed basic to educational practice. There may not be general agreement with the soundness of the philosophy which underlies the Winnetka technique, but that does not vitiate the above statement regarding the fundamental function of school organization.

The curriculum in the Winnetka schools is divided into two parts: "the common essentials" and "the group and creative activities."¹¹ The former consists of those knowledges and skills which presumably everyone needs to master. Washburne and his associates state¹² that the assumption underlying the work in the fundamentals is that every child, irrespective of educational or vocational destination,

... needs to know certain elements in arithmetic, needs to be able to read with certain speed and comprehension, needs to spell certain common words, needs to know something about those persons, places, and events to which reference is constantly made. Since every child needs these things, and since every child differs from others in his ability to grasp them, the time and the amount of practice to fit each child's needs must be varied. Under the old regime, in the effort to give different children the same subject matter in the same length of time, the quality of the children's work, the degree of their mastery, varied from poor to excellent, as attested by their report cards. But under the Winnetka technique of individual education, instead of quality varying, time varies: a child may take as much time as he needs to master a unit of work, but master it he must. The common essentials, by definition, are those knowledges and skills needed by everyone; to allow many children, therefore, to pass through school with hazy and inadequate grasp of them, as one must under the class lock-step scheme, is to fail in one of the functions of the school.*

* C. W. Washburne, "Burk's Individual System as Developed at Winnetka," in the Twenty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, 1925, p. 79.

¹⁰ Many of the individual-instruction materials prepared by Washburne and his staff are published by Rand McNally and Company and by the World Book Company. Those prepared by McDade and his staff are published by the Plymouth Press, Chicago.

¹¹ C. W. Washburne, Mabel Vogel, and W. S. Gray, *A Survey of the Winnetka Public Schools* (Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1926), p. 15.

¹² *Ibid.*, pp. 16-17.

Progress in the common essentials is strictly individual. Each child progresses through each unit of work at his own rate. He stays on one phase of the work until he masters it and then goes on to the next. The time required by the child to finish each particular unit of any of the common essentials varies greatly. The units of work are distinctly units of achievements, not units of time. . . . The general technique by which this individual progress is brought about consists of (a) breaking up the common essentials curriculum into very definite units of achievements; (b) using complete diagnostic tests to determine whether a child has mastered each of these units, and if not, just where his difficulties lie; and (c) the full use of self-instructive, self-corrective practice materials.

Except in speed in arithmetic, the standards of achievement are the same for all children. When a child has reached standard, he moves on to the next unit of work. There are, of course, reviews and a child must reach standard repeatedly. . . . The units of achievement are called "goals." These goals are specific. Instead of saying, for example, that a child must learn Column Addition during third grade, the Winnetka schools say that the child must be able, before leaving third grade arithmetic, to add columns three digits wide and four digits high at the rate of three in three minutes with one hundred percent accuracy. An effort has been made to define each goal in each of the common essentials with equal definiteness.

These goals are printed in abbreviated form on a large card supplied for each child. As a child progresses from one goal to the next, the date of completing each goal is recorded by the teacher on this goal card. At the end of six weeks the child connects the last recorded dates of all subjects with a red line. Thus his progress by subjects and as a whole is graphically shown from one six-weeks period to the next. On the back of the goal card the child's group-spirit, orderliness, initiative, etc., are indicated by check marks after appropriate descriptive paragraphs. This goal card, with full explanation of the various goals, is sent to parents in lieu of the ordinary report card.

The second part of the curriculum, the "group and creative activities," includes the development of appreciation of literature, music, and art; playground activities; assemblies; handwork of various kinds; projects which are an end in themselves rather than a means to the mastery of subject matter; discussions (again not for the purpose of learning common essential facts); and much of the color material and background of history and geography. The assumption is that these are the fields in which the results achieved by children may legitimately differ. There is no *common* skill or knowledge to be mastered. These activities are included because it is the school's job to provide opportunities for self-expression and for the development of the special interests and abilities of each individual. It is in this part of the curriculum that the Winnetka technique recognizes the variations in interests and needs of pupils. In the work in fundamentals or "goals" only differences in rate of achievement, not in amounts, are recognized.

To make possible a proportionate emphasis upon these two aspects of the curriculum and to give expression to the educational theories which underlie this type of program, the organization makes provision for the division of the school day in such a way that one-half of each forenoon and afternoon is given over to individual work in the common essentials, while

the other half of each session is given to group and creative activities. During the time devoted to individual work in the common essentials, every child works on his own job, or unit. If one should step into an arithmetic class—for example, a fourth-grade room—one might find one child just completing third-grade arithmetic, another beginning compound multiplication, another in the middle of long division, and still another beginning fifth-grade work in fractions. A child may be doing fourth-grade arithmetic during one period, but a few minutes later, in the same room, be doing fifth-grade reading. There are no recitations in the common essentials. Each child, when he has completed a series of units and has tested himself upon them, asks the teacher for the mastery test. Thus all of the teacher's time is spent in teaching, not in hearing recitations. She moves about among the pupils and gives assistance and instructions wherever they are needed.¹⁹ There are no failures and no child ever "skips a grade."

Another interesting feature of the organization consists of the methods used in classifying and promoting pupils, that is, determining the "grade room" in which the pupil is to be placed. Pupils are classified largely on the basis of age and social maturity. In general, children sit with others of approximately the same age and, roughly, the same general degree of grade advancement. Since progress in the common essentials is entirely individual, any pupil may readily be transferred from a room in which the environment does not seem to fit him to a room in which he can feel that he is among his peers and participate more happily in the group and creative activities. Individual progress in common essentials and the absence of examinations and promotional standards in group and creative activities gives flexibility to the classification and promotion of pupils which is unique. Such extreme flexibility in organization has been found difficult to obtain in schools in which group instruction prevails, and in which teachers of a given grade are delegated with the responsibility of administering a certain portion of a prescribed course of study to the pupils assigned to them. No doubt those in charge of other types of schools could gather valuable suggestions for the organization of their schools from this phase of the Winnetka program, even though they may not agree with the basic theories which underlie school procedures such as the Winnetka technique.

The essential difference between the individual-instruction technique as developed by Washburne in Winnetka and McDade in Chicago is that in the latter plan the special instructional materials consist of shorter units. It was McDade's view that instructional materials should be fitted into the program of teaching for any child. With the shorter units it becomes possible to select for any pupil only those which he should use. The claim is made that the latter type of material meets better the needs of schools which

¹⁹ Summarized from *Twenty-fourth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1925), p. 80.

have large classes and which cannot effect a complete reorganization of their work.²⁰

Although the most thorough test of the feasibility of the individual-instruction technique has been made in the elementary schools of Winnetka and Chicago, other school systems have adopted certain features of it, if not the entire plan. Of the 280 superintendents in cities with populations of 10,000 or more who reported to the Bureau of Education in 1926, 43 indicated the use of the Winnetka technique in some phase or other in various school grades.²¹

Since the Winnetka program emphasized research and experimentation throughout its existence, it is only natural that changes would have been made from time to time, many of which did not get into the published literature. Since the middle 1940's the classical dichotomy of morning activities of an individualized nature involving self-instructional materials and afternoon creative and socializing activities has disappeared almost completely. In fact, the dichotomy never really existed in the hard-and-fast sense in which it was depicted in the literature. In the social studies the former emphasis on individual study of subject matter through the use of practice books and goal cards has disappeared. In place of a prescribed eight-year culture epoch sequence the present social studies handbook suggests some 300 different projects from which teachers may choose. Group planning with children has superseded the emphasis on use of the individual progress materials. The former mechanical aspects of individualization have given way to individualization through small classes, study of the individual child, increased guidance by the teacher, and the so-called developmental approach. Modern versions of the old "Record Card" are still employed in the language arts and arithmetic.

Perhaps one of the most extensive attempts to evaluate any type of school organization is represented by the surveys which have been made to ascertain the effectiveness of the training given under the individual technique at Winnetka. During the school year 1923-1924 an extensive survey, including an age-grade census, academic achievement, time allotments, concentration of pupil attention, teacher load, costs, and the high-school achievements of Winnetka graduates, was conducted.²² Comparisons were made with similar items of data secured from three other school systems. At a later date another investigation pertaining to the success in high school of the Winnetka graduates was made.²³ Although the more comprehensive analysis of the evaluation of school organization is reserved for a later chapter, a

²⁰ L. J. Brueckner and E. O. Melby, *Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931), p. 44.

²¹ U. S. Bureau of Education, *City School Leaflet*, No. 22, *op. cit.*, p. 10.

²² Washburne, Vogel, and Gray, *op. cit.*

²³ Carleton Washburne and L. E. Rathers, "The High-School Achievement of Children Trained Under the Individual Technique," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 28 (November, 1927), pp. 214-224.

general statement may be opportune at this point. In general, the surveys show that in terms of such tests as were available the Winnetka schools are doing distinctly effective work—work which on the whole is more efficient than that done by comparable schools which use class methods of instruction.

THE DALTON PLAN

The Dalton Laboratory Plan is unlike the Winnetka technique in that it is not primarily a curriculum experiment, but rather an endeavor to give expression to a sociological philosophy of education through the curriculum which is commonly accepted. The Dalton plan aims to achieve its sociological objectives by centering upon and socializing the life of the school.²⁴

Briefly summarized, the aim of the Dalton Plan is a synthetic one. It suggests a simple and economic way by means of which the school as a whole can function as a community. The conditions under which the pupils live and work are the chief factors of their environment, and a favorable environment is one which provides opportunities for spiritual as well as mental growth. It is the social experience accompanying the tasks, not the tasks themselves, which stimulates and furnishes both these kinds of growth. Thus the Dalton plan lays emphasis upon the importance of the child's living while he does his work, and the manner in which he acts as a member of society, rather than upon the subjects of his curriculum.

The author of the Dalton plan has indicated three fundamental principles which must be recognized in applying the above theory.²⁵ The first principle is freedom—freedom for an individual to pursue his interests, to work without interruptions, and to develop concentration. This freeing process is the essential contribution of the plan.²⁶ The second principle is cooperation and interaction of group life, or community living. The third principle is the apportionment of effort to attainment, or budgeting time.

To facilitate the application of these principles and theory, an organization has been developed which has many features not commonly found in graded schools. The subjects of study are divided into two groups. One group consists of the academic subjects such as reading, mathematics, physical science, composition, spelling, grammar, history, geography, art and handicraft; the other group consists of the physical, social, and emotional subjects such as physical training, literature, excursions, nature study, and lantern lectures. The academic subjects are taught largely on the basis of

²⁴ Helen Parkhurst, *Education on the Dalton Plan* (New York, E. P. Dutton and Co., 1929), p. 29.

²⁵ Helen Parkhurst, "The Dalton Laboratory Plan," *Twenty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, *op. cit.*, p. 84.

²⁶ Evelyn Dewey, *The Dalton Laboratory Plan* (New York, E. P. Dutton and Co., 1922), p. 6.

individual pupil progress while the latter group of subjects is taught by the class method. The work for each grade in each of the academic subjects is laid out in a series of related jobs, or contracts. Each job consists of a number of smaller units, perhaps fifteen or twenty, the total comprising an amount of work which can usually be done within a school month of twenty days. A child is permitted to progress at his own rate through the units of each job, but before he is allowed to begin the work of another job in the same subject he must also have completed the corresponding jobs for each of the other subjects he is taking. At least once each month the pupil is expected to show an "even front" in all the subjects, thus preventing continued emphasis on favored subjects and neglect of more difficult ones. Extensive individual and group progress charts are kept. Daily class recitations are greatly reduced in number. Each teacher usually plans to have at least one group discussion per week for each subject in each grade. At this time new topics may be presented, controversial issues debated, or doubtful problems clarified. The rest of the teacher's time is consumed in assisting individual pupils or small groups of pupils.

The organization for administering the program provides for a specially equipped room or laboratory for each of the subjects. Each laboratory is in charge of a teacher who is a specialist in his field. During the free period in the forenoon (usually from 9:30 to 12:00) all pupils from any of the grades (that is, Grade 4 and above) who choose to work upon a certain subject, congregate in the designated laboratory, each child pursuing his own contract. Pupils of the same grade and similar degrees of advancement are encouraged to assemble in one section of the room, thus working and conversing with others of their own age. Pupils also mingle with and seek assistance from their older associates. It is hoped that in this way the school more nearly duplicates community life outside of school. Each room is in reality an ungraded school in which pupils from three or more grades, depending upon the number of grades in the school, pursue the same subject. If the enrollment in the school is so large that more than one laboratory of each kind must be equipped, the pupils are divided into divisions of 200 or 250 students, each division consisting of children from all grades to secure the mingling of all age groups.

To gain greatest returns from instruction under the Dalton plan it has been found desirable to include only Grade 4 and above, because from the fourth grade on students have usually acquired enough of the basic tools for learning so independent study may be carried on. The conventional concept of school grades is retained and contracts are planned in terms of the conventional curricula for the various grades. The use of a central library is reduced in those Daltonized schools in which it has been found desirable to distribute the most frequently used reference materials to the different laboratories where they are most needed. For the group activities, especially

those of the afternoon, children are classified on an age basis; those of ages 9, 10, and 11 comprise one group; the second group consists of 11- and 12-year-olds; the third group of 12- and 13-year-olds; and the fourth group of 13- and 14-year-olds.²⁷

The Dalton idea as a plan of organization has met with greater favor in European countries than in the United States. It has been applied more extensively to high-school work than to the elementary grades. It was first introduced by Miss Parkhurst in 1919 in an ungraded school for crippled children. In 1920 the plan was adopted in the high school at Dalton, Massachusetts, hence the name *Dalton Plan*. No doubt those in charge of elementary schools have hesitated about its adoption *in toto* because of the uncertainty of the ability of grade-school pupils to budget time effectively. Reports show that more than half of the 44 superintendents in cities having populations of 10,000 or more, who indicated the use of the Dalton plan, or a modification of it, in 1926, were applying it to one or more of the elementary grades.²⁸ About 25 years ago the plan was subjected to an extensive or experimental trial in some of the platoon schools of Detroit, Michigan.²⁹ Certainly it merits careful examination for the possibilities which it has for facilitating the adaptation of instruction in individual differences.

THE COOPERATIVE GROUP PLAN

On the assumption that the form of organization for elementary schools, which developed nearly a century ago and which has remained in operation until the present time with only relatively insignificant modifications, had outlived its period of usefulness and was pursuing on into a period when the obligations facing the school demanded a new type of program and a new curriculum which cannot be given adequate expression through an outgrown organization, Dr. James F. Hosc and his associates set about to devise a plan of organization which would be in harmony with and facilitate the carrying out of the new program.³⁰ The plan has been called "The Cooperative Group Plan." To serve as guides in planning the organization, Hosc outlined a series of 11 propositions. Space cannot be given here to discuss fully each of the propositions as the author has done in a 23-page monograph.³¹ Dr. Hosc called attention to the fact that the proposals are to be considered in their entirety; the suggestions are not to be taken piece-

²⁷ U. S. Bureau of Education, *City School Leaflet* No. 22, *op. cit.*, pp. 7-9.

²⁸ *Ibid.*

²⁹ W. Vreeland, "Detroit's Experiment on Individualization," *School and Society*, Vol. 33 (September 20, 1930), pp. 298-402.

³⁰ J. F. Hosc, L. T. Hopkins, and student committees, *The Cooperative Group Plan for the Organization of Elementary Schools* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931).

³¹ J. F. Hosc, *The Cooperative Group Plan: Working Principles for the Organization of Elementary Schools* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929).

meal. He also points out that quantitative terms have been avoided intentionally.³²

Good schools will not result from the general application of a formula. The individual differences of communities, principals, and teachers must be recognized as well as those of children. A sound scheme of organization must, in the nature of things, be flexible. This consideration calls for principles, not formulas.

The propositions, summarized from Dr. Hosis's monograph, are as follows:³³

1. The purpose of the elementary school (for children from four or five to twelve or thirteen years of age), stated in terms of the individual, is to give each of the pupils who attend it the best possible opportunity for growth as a person.

2. The purpose of the elementary school (for children from four or five to twelve or thirteen years of age), stated in terms of society, is to fit each child to participate as helpfully and happily as possible in the home and community life of the present and the near future.

3. A teacher can usually best assist in carrying out the purposes of an elementary school by undertaking not the whole but only a part of the educational stimulation and guidance of individual pupils and groups of pupils.

4. Each teacher in the elementary school should plan and carry on her work cooperatively as a member of a group of teachers who have the same pupils in charge.

5. Every group of teachers in the cooperative plan of organization should be led by one of their own number, designated chairman, or group leader.

6. Each group leader or chairman should bear a portion of the responsibility for the supervision of the teaching done by the other members of his or her group.

7. Every teacher in the elementary school should have a classroom especially designed and equipped for the age of pupil and particular type of activity she is expected to stimulate and guide.

8. The subjects or activities of the school course intended for certain groups of children in charge of a single group of teachers should be closely related. Not more than six types of activities should be recognized.

9. Even though five teachers, more or less, share the work of guiding the activities of a group of children, as proposed in the Cooperative Group Plan, nevertheless each of them should bear special responsibility for the welfare of one portion of the group, that is, for a "class."

10. The distinction between "special" subjects and "regular" subjects as applied to the program of a modern elementary school should be dropped.

11. To attempt to distinguish between "curriculum" and "extra-curricular activities" is also unfortunate.

With the above propositions as the theoretical basis for the reorganization of elementary schools, individuals and committees under the direction of Dr. Hosis began to formulate a plan of organization in which those principles could be applied effectively. Some of the essential features of the tentative proposal are given here.

³² *Ibid.*, p. 5.

³³ *Ibid.*

Specialization in teaching is provided in all grades. It is recommended, however, that no teacher cover a grade range of more than three years. Each teacher is to be, not a "subject specialist" as frequently found in high schools, but a specialist in teaching children the experiences, abilities, and attitudes which can be attained through certain fields. In the primary school (Grades 1 to 3, inclusive) there would be four teachers, each in charge of one of the following special rooms and phases of work: (1) library: literature, composition, story-telling, reading, spelling; (2) museum: elementary science, arithmetic, health, social studies; (3) arts and crafts: fine and industrial arts, writing; (4) recreation room: music, dramatization, program planning, physical training, playground activities. Each of these rooms would be especially equipped with the essential materials and used only by the pupils of the three lower grades. Several rooms of each type may be fitted if the enrollment is adequate. For Grades 4, 5, and 6 a total of five rooms is proposed, namely, the social-studies laboratory, the science laboratory, the English workroom, the arts and crafts room, and the recreation room.

The main feature of the plan, the characteristic from which the plan perhaps derived its name, is the organization of the teachers of a school into small cooperative groups, each of which is led by one of its own members who acts as chairman. Their common interest is the pupils whom they teach. They are brought together, not because they teach the same subject, but because they have the same children. Each group is composed of from three to six teachers, depending upon the size of the school and the grade level. The teachers plan their work cooperatively to obtain the maximum of integration in the educative experiences of the children. For this purpose an integration chart is used in planning the work.³⁴ The regular curriculum of the school may be used since the Cooperative Group Plan is not in itself a plan of curriculum revision. The chairman or leader of each group will assume at least a portion of the supervisory responsibility. The need for itinerant special or general supervisors will be minimized or eliminated entirely. If the group leaders consist of the best qualified and professionally trained teachers, the organization of the school will give an opportunity for able persons to exert influences of leadership beyond the confines of a single classroom.³⁵

Although specialization in teaching is a characteristic feature of the plan, there are to be no "special subjects" such as are commonly found in schools at present. The arbitrary and perhaps unsound distinction between "regular" and "special" subjects is to be discarded. Likewise the distinction between "curricular" and "extracurricular" activities is to be abandoned. All activi-

³⁴ For a sample integration chart, see Hosc, Hopkins, and student committees, *op. cit.*, pp. 12-15.

³⁵ Fred Engelhardt, "Differentiation in Classroom Teaching," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 16 (April, 1930), pp. 321-329.

ties valuable for educative experiences, which are deemed appropriate for the school to encourage and to assume jurisdiction over, are to be considered an integral part of the work of the school and emphasized in proportion to the contributions which they are assumed to make. The school day will be divided into perhaps four or five parts, the children spending each part in one of the rooms and with a certain teacher. It is hoped that growth and continuity of pupil progress will be facilitated through contact with the same group of teachers over a period of three years.

Although the Cooperative Group Plan was developed in the early 1930's, no published evaluations of it have ever appeared. In fact, there has been no mention of it in the professional literature in the past decade and there are no data on the extent of its adoption. No doubt it still exists in at least some of the places in which it was developed by its early adherents. It may disappear entirely from the scene when its initial exponents relinquish their leadership.

ABILITY GROUPING

Ability grouping is the practice of segregating the children of a given grade or age group into groups according to ability. The idea of ability grouping appeared after group mental tests became available following World War I. The practice began in public schools in the early 1920's and was heralded by some as the long-sought panacea for meeting individual differences. It is therefore not surprising that its use spread rapidly. In 1926 reports from 40 cities with populations of 100,000 or more showed that in 36 of them the elementary-school pupils in some or all grades were classified into ability groups. Similar practices were reported for 66 of 89 cities with populations of 30,000 to 100,000, and for 145 of 163 cities with populations of 10,000 to 30,000.³⁶ As the years went by, experience with ability grouping and critical research studies raised many questions and doubts about its values. In spite of the fact that ability grouping still remains as a much-debated practice, many school systems continue to use it. In 1948, 53 per cent of 1598 city school systems were using it in one or more schools. The per cent of cities reporting its use in 1948 ranged from 72 in places of over 100,000 population to 44 in cities of 2500 to 4999 population.³⁷

Ability grouping is not a plan of organization. It is merely one aspect of the practices followed in the classification of children, a topic which is treated in a subsequent chapter. Attention is called to it here simply because it has usually been introduced as one means of making adjustments to individual differences of pupils. It is an administrative device which may become a feature of any one of a variety of plans of organization. Unfortunately, ability grouping has been used in some schools as a panacea for all the evils associated with a traditional and outgrown organization.

³⁶ U. S. Bureau of Education, *City School Leaflet*, No. 22, *op. cit.*, p. 1.

³⁷ *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 27, No. 1 (February, 1949), p. 17.

SPECIAL CLASSES

Special classes are the modifications in organization which result from the application of the policies for the classification of children which are found in some school systems. If the classification policy calls for the segregation into special groups of certain atypical pupils, then the administration must provide for some means of handling these separated groups. Special classes and schools of various kinds have been the result. Needless to say, the establishment of special classes has been one way of providing more adequately for individual differences and for meeting better the increasing demands made upon the public schools. Administrative problems which are peculiar to this phase of organization are discussed in another chapter.

THE ALL-YEAR SCHOOL

The term "all-year school" has been applied to school systems which operate the complete program or curriculum throughout the calendar year.³⁸ In some schools which operate on the all-year plan, each child attends during the entire twelve months while in other districts the classes are "staggered" so that the total enrollment during any one quarter is approximately equal to that in each of the other quarters of the year. Under the latter arrangement each pupil is expected to attend three out of the four quarters, thus placing one-fourth of the school population on vacation during each quarter.

The all-year school should not be confused with the plan administered in some cities whereby a 9- or 10-month academic year is followed by a summer school. The biennial surveys of education published by the U. S. Office of Education showed 251 city-school systems operating elementary summer schools in 1930 with 265,821 pupils enrolled. Later issues of the biennial survey have not separated enrollment into elementary-school and high-school pupils so that comparative statements are not possible, but since the number of cities operating summer schools of either type had decreased from 374 in 1930 to 135 in 1938, one might assume a corresponding decrease in the number of elementary pupils accommodated. By 1942 the percentage of cities providing summer schools was again on the increase, a change caused in part by war needs, but whether this increase meant an increase of summer school offering for elementary-school pupils is doubtful since only 71 out of 235 cities planned to operate summer elementary programs. The number of cities that reported summer schools had increased further to 278 in 1948; the enrollment had increased to 264,651 but the data were not separated for elementary and secondary pupils.

As a rule the offering in elementary summer schools is confined to sched-

³⁸ E. N. Lane, "The All-Year School—Its Origin and Development," *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. 9 (March, 1932), pp. 49-52.

uled classes in academic subjects, the chief purpose of which is to assist backward and failing students to complete their grade or to enable superior pupils to skip a grade or half-grade. Frequently pupils attend only during the hours for which are scheduled the specific subjects they are to take. It should also be remembered that the all-year school does not represent a particular type of internal organization for elementary schools, but merely means the year-round operation of such form of organization as happens to be in existence.

A number of advantages have been posited for the all-year school. In congested centers there are many children who perhaps should have opportunity for schooling during all periods of the year. Continuous attendance throughout the year would decrease the vacation street hazards, diminish the loss in pupil efficiency caused by a two- or three-month absence from studies, and provide a more wholesome environment than some children find during vacation periods. Benefits should accrue to overage and retarded pupils as well as to superior pupils who may be encouraged to complete the elementary course in less than standard time. Perhaps some of the most vital arguments for the all-year school are the greater utilization of school plant, lower cost of operation during summer months, and, if the three-quarter plan with staggered vacations is followed, lower building costs.³⁹

The all-year school has also been subjected to adverse criticism. It has been contended that children should not be expected to attend school during hot summer months, that the vacation is needed for healthful, outdoor activity, and that the mental, nervous, and physical strain of school attendance should be broken by an extended summer vacation. The health of teachers is likewise an important factor. Experience has demonstrated the undesirability of using the all-year plan to hurry children into high school at immature ages. Some administrators also point out that, if staggered vacations are granted, the class organization in schools of small enrollment is so broken up that it becomes necessary to assign three or four grades to a single teacher.

Although much has been written about the all-year school, very few cities operate their schools on this plan.⁴⁰ The arguments pro and con are largely theoretical and have little foundation in the established results of research. Experimental evaluation of the all-year school has been limited in scope and character. A comprehensive survey, made in 1926, of the public schools of Newark, New Jersey, which had been on the all-year plan since 1912, showed that the all-year schools were not doing what was originally claimed for them. The survey committee found, however, that the all-year schools were doing extremely valuable work and rendering a great service, particularly to children of foreign parentage and unfavorable home conditions.

³⁹ H. R. Vanderslice, "The All-Year School in Aliquippa, Pennsylvania," *The Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 30 (April, 1930), pp. 576-585.

⁴⁰ Lane, *op. cit.*

The survey staff recommended that, since the additional cost was not excessive in terms of the service rendered, the all-year schools be continued.⁴¹ In 1931 the all-year plan was discontinued in Newark. Reports for Nashville, Tennessee, indicate that the all-year plan is meeting with approval there. In 1929 the Committee on Organization and Administration of the Teachers' Council, New York City, recommended that the proposal to adopt the all-year school be abandoned and that the present system be continued there.⁴²

The pro and con arguments about the all-year school have continued through the 1940's and into the 1950's.⁴³ Peterson supported his arguments in favor of the all-year school by summarizing 10 research studies dealing with the trend in children's achievement during the summer vacation. Although the research evidence was not too consistent or too convincing either way, Peterson concluded that the evidence provided a strong incentive for the continuation of the school throughout the summer months.⁴⁴ Tomancik, in 1951, sent an inquiry to school superintendents throughout the country in order to find out what they thought about the operation of schools on a 12-month basis.⁴⁵ The replies showed that school superintendents generally were not enthusiastic about the idea. All of the familiar arguments against the 12-month program, plus a few new obstacles, were mentioned by them. The future of the all-year plan appears very problematical.

SCHOOL CAMPING

Within very recent years leaders in both education and camping have been giving increasing attention to the year-round use of camps associated with the public schools. The idea of camps operated by public schools has some relationship to the idea of all-year schools. The number of camps for children has increased rapidly in the United States. Estimates indicate that today there are between 12,000 and 15,000 camps of various kinds serving better than three million campers, or about 1 child in 10 of school age. Included in this estimated number of camps are 850 operated by the Boy Scouts, 600 by the Girl Scouts, 649 by the YMCA, 145 by the YWCA, 78

⁴¹ W. S. Deffenbaugh, *Recent Movements in City School Systems*, U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 8 (1927), p. 20.

⁴² Committee on Organization and Administration of the Teachers' Council, New York City, "Report of the All-Year School," *The Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 30 (March, 1930), pp. 509-518.

⁴³ Dale E. Taylor, "Year-Round School," *The School Executive*, Vol. 65 (December, 1945), pp. 50-51; J. M. Clifford, "The Wasteful School Year," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 117 (September, 1948), p. 24; H. M. Lafferty, "Let's Keep Schools Open in Summer," *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. 48 (July, 1951), pp. 41-42.

⁴⁴ Robert G. Peterson, "The Twelve-Month School," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 110 (May, 1945), pp. 38-40.

⁴⁵ Mary Tomancik, "Administrators Dispute Arguments for All-Year Schools," *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. 47 (June, 1951), pp. 69-71.

by the Boys' Clubs of America, 180 by the Camp Fire Girls, 46 by the Salvation Army, and several thousand by private owners. With very few exceptions, these camps are operated only during the summer months, the equipment thus standing idle nine months each year. The large number of children who attend these camps each summer is evidence of the fact that many parents consider the camping experience of real value to their children.

Leaders in the camping movement are shifting away from an exercise and entertainment program to an educational view of camp life. Leaders in education are likewise seeing new potentialities in camping experiences for children. It gets the child into an entirely new environment, away from home, with new associates, and under conditions where self-help, individual responsibility, and cooperative activity appear in new light and with new opportunity. For some reason camp life seems to be very potent in helping the maladjusted child and in bringing new responsibilities to the leaders. Educationally and from a health and physical development standpoint, camps can make as large a contribution as schools.

Camping as part of a school's program dates back to 1861 when Frederick Gunn of the Gunnery School at Washington, Connecticut, established a two-weeks period of "camping out" as a part of his school's curriculum.⁴⁶ Other school sponsored camps were started in Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania, in 1876, at Gardiner's Island in Rhode Island in 1880, and in New Hampshire in 1881. Except for isolated individual ventures between 1880 and 1920, school camping was not given serious thought by school systems until Los Angeles in 1923 began taking children aged 12 to 16 out to camps in school busses for a one-week camping experience during the summer months. Subsequent ventures by individual schools included the Central Washington College of Education demonstration school (1930), the Tappan Junior High School in Ann Arbor, Michigan (1931), New York City (1934), Atlanta, Georgia (1938), Western Michigan College of Education (1940), Catskill, New York (1941), New Jersey State Teachers College (1944), Indiana State Teachers College (1944), Rural Life School, Bricks, North Carolina (1945), San Diego City and County (1946), and Austin and Tyler, Texas (1949).⁴⁷

The preceding sketch of the beginnings of school camping tells only a partial story because published records are not available of many other projects by school systems in numerous parts of the country. School camping is now widespread in individual school systems scattered throughout the land, but it is by no means an integral part of school programs everywhere. Altogether about 500 school systems now have some type of camping pro-

⁴⁶ Frank L. Irwin, *The Theory of Camping: An Introduction To Camping in Education* (New York, A. S. Barnes and Co., 1950), Ch. 1.

⁴⁷ Helen K. Machintosh, *Camping and Outdoor Experiences in the School Program*, Bulletin No. 4 (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1947).

gram. Its spread among the largest proportion of school systems has probably occurred in California and Michigan. In the latter state more than 50 school systems were offering camping as a regular part of the school curriculum in 1951.⁴⁸ Detailed descriptions of local practices are appearing in the literature in increasing number⁴⁹ and a few research studies have been completed.⁵⁰

OTHER FORMS OF REORGANIZATION

The reader should not infer that the special types of organization for elementary schools discussed above are to be looked upon as the only plans through which the present purposes of elementary education can be attained. The plans given above have been described to illustrate the various ways or courses which have been followed in attempts to modify and to improve the traditional graded school. The sponsors of each of these plans have sought a means whereby certain current theories about education and the demands upon the public schools could be met more adequately. It is only natural that there should be some differences in the methods devised. Which of them will be rejected and which will be accepted will be determined by the extent to which each one is able to meet the challenge which it has accepted.

There are many school systems in which the organization for elementary education is of the rigid, formalized, typically traditional type. Modern educational theory labels these as archaic and inadequate to meet the present needs. The degree to which this criticism is valid has not been fully determined. In some cities the administrative programs have not undergone complete reorganization, but they have been modified to incorporate some of the features considered characteristic attributes of the special forms of organization described above. In fact, a cross-section of elementary-school organization today shows great diversity. There is no standard elementary school. Local conditions, no doubt, have been potent influences in shaping the programs in local communities. In view of such great diversity of practice and in the absence of more scientific knowledge regarding the relative

⁴⁸ Julian W. Smith, "Outdoor Learning," *Journal of the National Education Association*, Vol. 40 (April, 1951), pp. 262-263.

⁴⁹ Florence Greenhoe Robbins, "Family Camping—An Experience in Democratic Living," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 50 (January, 1950), pp. 268-272; Archie S. Potter and George W. Donaldson, "School Camps," *Texas Outlook*, Vol. 35 (August, 1951), pp. 8-9; Hugh B. Masters, "A Community-School Camp," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 41 (June, 1941), pp. 736-747; Truda T. Weil, "Camping Has a Place in the Regular Curriculum," *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. 44 (July, 1949), p. 27.

⁵⁰ D. Richard Bowles, *Values and Principles for Extended Educational Experiences in the Austin Public Schools*, unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Texas, 1951; James M. Clarke, *Public School Camping: California's Pilot Project in Outdoor Education* (Stanford, Cal., Stanford University Press, 1951).

merits of various devices, it is difficult for any single administrator to know which practices to avoid and which to accept and to try to incorporate into his own school. Some authorities feel that only a basic and fundamental reorganization is acceptable. Whichever plan is pursued, it is perhaps essential that the administration bear in mind the fact that the fundamental function of organization is to permit those in charge of the work to give expression to the educational philosophy which underlies the program, and that no organization can be judged adequate which does not make it possible to provide for the differences among pupils.

FACETS OF INTERNAL ORGANIZATION

So far the discussion in this chapter has focused upon (*a*) a definition and description of organization, (*b*) the role of organization, (*c*) the relationships between organization and administration, (*d*) gross features of elementary-school organization, and (*e*) unusual organizational plans or features such as the platoon school, the Cooperative Group Plan, school camping, and so forth. There remains the third area or zone of organization as it affects and finds expression in elementary schools. This third zone consists of the facets of internal organization within each school. The term "facets" is used here to mean phases, elements, segments, or differentiated parts. Each of these facets consists of structure or design, administrative policies, and operational procedures. Like the parts of a clock, each wheel is an entity in itself with distinctive shape, size, and weight, yet each wheel is an inseparable part of the clock as a whole.

In an elementary school the on-going program, when school is in session, is "the whole." Yet "the whole" carries on, like the clock in motion, through the harmonious interlocking interdependent, interfunctioning of the several parts. Each part is a miniature organization of its own. There is the organization of the curriculum, the organization of the school-lunch program, the plan for textbook management, the organization for health and safety, the organization for the education of exceptional children, the organization for library service, the organization for instruction, the plan for grouping of pupils, the organization for reporting to parents, the organization for rendering administrative services in the school, the plan for in-service education, and many others that could be added.

From the preceding discussion it is evident that the internal organization of an elementary school is not a singular but a multiple thing. Each of the facets of internal organization must be so constituted that it functions smoothly in harmonious fashion with each of the other facets. Unless such completely harmonized operation exists, there will be conflicts, cross-currents, frequent contradictions, and actual interferences. Figure 7 is an attempt to picture the interrelationships of the facets of internal organiza-

tion and to show their relations to the purposes of the school in fostering the well-rounded development of children. Note that the curriculum is the school's vehicle for promoting children's development in the direction of the purposes of education. The facets of organization are the internal wheels whereby all the different elements of an elementary school program are brought together into one harmoniously functioning enterprise, in which every detail is so ordered that the school's philosophy, purposes, and curriculum may receive full expression through teachers' work with children. It follows, therefore, that the function of internal organization is to make it possible for teachers to provide children with the kind of schooling that is desired. In a very real sense the function of internal organization is to serve teachers and teaching.

PURPOSES OF EDUCATION IN AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

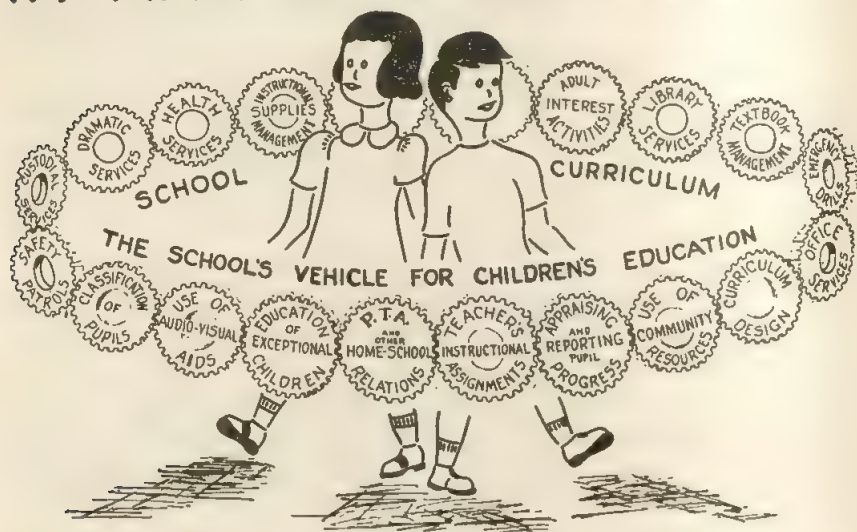


FIG. 7: Some facets of internal organization and their relationship to the school's educational program.

STANDARDIZATION, ACCREDITATION, AND EVALUATION

The elementary school has not been immune from the continuing desire to improve, which is so characteristic in our people and in our heritage. Before 1900 the movements for the improvement of elementary schools were spear-

headed largely by individuals who emerged as national leaders in education. There were no score cards, rating schedules, or evaluation handbooks. Theoretical conceptions were translated into practice in general ways without the aid of specific guideposts. The general urge and need for school improvement led to more tangible activities which, at about the turn of the present century, tended to standardize elementary schools in one way or another. Minnesota, through its state department of education, initiated the plan of state elementary-school standardization in 1895.⁵¹ Since that date many other states have followed suit. By 1932, 13 states had established some plan for standardizing their elementary schools.⁵² By 1944 the practice had been extended to 24 states.⁵³ Length of term, length of the elementary course, number of grades to be assigned to one teacher, minimum and maximum average daily attendance per teacher, training of teachers, libraries, supplementary readers, equipment, buildings, and grounds were among the specific aspects of organization covered by the standards. In addition to the regulations of state departments of education, instruction in elementary schools in many states is somewhat controlled by legal prescriptions regarding specific subjects to be taught and the time to be allotted to them.

Among the standardizing influences on elementary education should be mentioned certain developments which have come more specifically from within the profession itself, if such a distinction may be momentarily tolerated for purposes of clarity. Standards for elementary-school buildings, which have had a wide influence on school-plant design and construction, were developed by Strayer and Engelhardt in 1923.⁵⁴ Specialized phases of the school plant, such as ventilation,⁵⁵ plumbing equipment,⁵⁶ the school theater,⁵⁷ and home economics rooms,⁵⁸ were also subjected to the standardizing process. Mort and Hilleboe prepared *A Rating Scale for Elementary School Organization* on the basis of which schools might analyze and

⁵¹ J. D. Williams, *State Elementary School Standardization*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Kentucky.

⁵² H. H. Hill, "How Thirteen States Standardize Their Elementary Schools," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 10 (September, 1932), pp. 60-65.

⁵³ Raymond H. Fletcher, *The Role of the State in the Administration of Elementary Education*, unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Texas, 1944.

⁵⁴ G. D. Strayer and N. L. Engelhardt, *Standards for Elementary-School Buildings* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1923). Revised in 1933.

⁵⁵ New York Commission on Ventilation, *School Ventilation* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931).

⁵⁶ M. W. Thomas, *Public School Plumbing Equipment*, Contributions to Education, No. 282 (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928).

⁵⁷ M. M. Smith, *The Equipment of the School Theater*, Contributions to Education, No. 421 (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930).

⁵⁸ M. Brodshaug, *Buildings and Equipment for Home Economics in Secondary Schools*, Contributions to Education, No. 502 (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932).

evaluate their own practices and compare their ratings with those secured in other cities or schools with reference to such major items as progress and adjustment of pupils, educational activities, school environment and morale, and services.⁵⁹ Mort and Featherstone developed standards and accounting procedures regarding entrance and promotion practices in city school systems which give standards (perhaps better called norms) with reference to the percentage of overage, normal-age, and underage children, and progress, for selected grades.⁶⁰ School surveys, the first ones of which were made about 1910, gave attention to almost every phase of administration, supervision, and instruction.⁶¹ The school survey has been primarily an evaluating agency for determining the efficiency of inter-school and the need for reorganization and remedial measures. It usually criticizes and makes recommendations in terms of generally accepted principles and standards, thus tending to standardize practice even though adaptations are made to the local conditions.

School surveys led directly to the development of some of the standardized tests.⁶² Among the major uses to which tests have been put are determining and evaluating administrative policies, setting up objectives and evaluating methods of teaching, and improving learning.⁶³ From the administrative point of view, tests have been used in the classification and promotion of pupils, the recognition of individual differences, remedial teaching, standardization of teachers' marks, supervisory activities, and in curriculum construction and evaluation. In each of these aspects of school work the uses of standardized tests have enabled comparisons of practices and achievements in one city or school with those of another. In many instances such comparisons resulted, although perhaps inadvertently, in a tendency toward uniformity and standardization.

The decade from 1930 to 1940 brought into prominence a new and expanded viewpoint regarding standardization and accrediting. The growing dissatisfaction with the somewhat mechanical standards heretofore used and the fact that they did not touch the content, tone, and methodology of the educational program in any vital sense, induced educational leaders to attempt a fundamental reorientation of the whole standardization and accrediting process. The term *evaluation*, which carried a broad meaning,

⁵⁹ P. R. Mort and G. L. Hilleboe, *A Rating Scale for Elementary School Organization* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930).

⁶⁰ P. R. Mort and W. B. Featherstone, *Entrance and Promotion Practices in City School Systems: Standards and Accounting Procedures* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932).

⁶¹ H. L. Caswell, *City School Surveys*, Contributions to Education, No. 358 (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929).

⁶² Clifford Woody and P. V. Sangren, *Administration of the Testing Program* (Yonkers, N. Y., World Book Co., 1933), p. 12.

⁶³ "Educational Tests and Their Uses," *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 2, No. 1 (February, 1933), p. 50.

became widely used.⁶⁴ Individuals and organizations published articles and books dealing with this broader approach to the appraisal of schools.⁶⁵

The standardization movement which flourished in some states prior to and into the 1930's was found to have the undesirable feature of causing a halt in continuing efforts at improvement. Local communities would strive to meet the then existing standards. When they had done so, the state department of education would issue them a certificate or placard to that effect. Sometimes the placard was in the form of a sign saying "Standard School" which was hung over the front door of the schoolhouse. Once such recognition had been achieved the community would settle down comfortably and henceforth forget about further school improvement. Hundreds of schools which received such recognition 20 or more years ago are still the kinds of schools, except for subsequent deterioration of the building, that they were at the time the standardization recognition was awarded.

Standardization did serve as a motive for improving schools and bringing them up to the then existing standards. Standardization naturally emerged into accreditation. Once a school had met the established standards it was considered an accredited school. States in which accreditation of elementary schools is practiced have raised the requirements for accreditation from time to time, and in so far as this has been done there has been a continuing influence for improvement. However, accreditation as usually practiced in the past has had a limited base in that the items included have consisted largely of the objective things that could be observed or counted, like lighting, heating, plumbing, length of school term, qualifications of the teacher, among others. The curriculum, as the real heart of the educational program, was difficult to assay on a check sheet or report form. Another limitation is that in most states accreditation applies only to rural schools; schools in the larger independent or city districts were not affected. In 24 states there is no machinery at all for elementary-school accreditation. Unfortunately there is no published evidence which shows whether elementary schools of today are better or worse in states that have had some form of accreditation as compared to schools in states that have not had it.

There is some evidence, however, on a national basis to suggest that

⁶⁴ L. E. Rath, "Basis for Comprehensive Evaluation," *California Journal of Secondary Education* (March, 1938), pp. 137-142; Clifford Woody, "Nature of Evaluation," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. XXXV (March, 1942), pp. 481-491; Hilda Taba, "Functions of Evaluation," *Childhood Education*, Vol. XVI (February, 1939), pp. 245-251.

⁶⁵ W. S. Monroe, editor, "Evaluation," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1941), pp. 468-470; P. R. Mort and F. C. Cornell, *A Guide for Self Appraisal of School Systems* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937); J. W. Wrightstone, *Appraisal of Newer Elementary School Practices* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938); W. C. Reavis, *Evaluating the Work of the School* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1940); J. P. Leonard and A. C. Eurich, eds., *An Evaluation of Modern Education* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1942).

accreditation might be a wholesome thing for elementary schools if it could be done in a constructive fashion. This evidence is in the nature of a comparison between progress in secondary and progress in elementary schools. High-school accrediting by state universities began in the 1870's. Regional accrediting associations, like the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges, developed in the latter half of the 1890's. High schools, therefore, have been under the influence of state and regional accrediting agencies since about 1900. During that period nearly every community has striven to do whatever was necessary to keep its high school on the accredited list. In most communities the effort to keep the high school on the accredited list has militated against the welfare of elementary schools. Frequently a new million-dollar high school was built and the old high-school building converted in some makeshift fashion into an elementary school. In many communities the elementary schools were actually in greater need of new plant facilities than was the high school. Other differentials that exist commonly are larger teacher-pupil ratios, heavier teaching loads, less, if any, clerical help, lower teacher and administrator qualifications and salaries, and less money budgeted for library and instructional supplies in the elementary schools. Some will argue that the elementary schools have made greater progress than the secondary schools in curriculum and instructional practices. If the assumption is true, the difference can hardly be blamed on accreditation at the high-school level. Other factors much more influential than accreditation must be taken into account when appraising curriculum development, or the lack thereof, in the secondary field.

The several issues pertaining to elementary-school accreditation have been important factors in projecting new ideas and new approaches to the problem. Dissatisfaction with the mechanical nature and limited scope of the items included in the usual accreditation form suggested the broader base encompassed by the idea of evaluation. The need for continuing local concern for improvement suggested the importance of placing major stress upon self-appraisal and the preparation and adoption of a systematic plan for improvement. It also suggested the idea of periodic re-accreditation based upon progress or improvements made since the previous accreditation rather than upon a mere tabulation of items or the attainment of a minimum score. The fact that no community can have a good high school unless the secondary-school program is underpinned with a good program in the elementary schools makes it imperative that every division of the school system must be equally good. Elementary schools must not be sacrificed at the expense of the secondary schools. Consequently evaluation and accreditation must be on a system-wide basis covering all portions of the school program from nursery school or kindergarten through the senior high school or the junior college.

The several ideas identified in the preceding paragraph constitute the trend of the 1940's that will probably find fuller expression in the 1950's.

Various groups, agencies, and individuals have prepared evaluation materials which reflect the trend and which are being used experimentally at the present time. As early as 1937, Mort and Cornell prepared *A Guide for Self-Appraisal of School Systems*.⁶⁶ At a later date the activities of the New York area Metropolitan Study Council produced *The Growing Edge*, a check-list device concerned with practices at all grade levels.⁶⁷ Shane and McSwain prepared a comprehensive treatise on evaluation in the elementary school.⁶⁸ Under the auspices of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools a three-year region-wide study of elementary education was undertaken in 1948. This project was known as the Southern Association's Cooperative Study in Elementary Education and included 15 states in the south and southwest, from Texas and Oklahoma on the west to the southern states on the Atlantic seaboard. The project resulted in four publications designed to assist in the improvement of elementary schools.⁶⁹ The ones most pertinent to this discussion are a 24-page pamphlet entitled *Good Schools for Children* and a two-volume edition of *Elementary Evaluative Criteria*. The first of these volumes is a handbook on values and procedures while the second volume is a workbook designed for use in appraising the local school. The pamphlet is intended for use with school boards and parent groups. In addition to the four publications, the Cooperative Study in Elementary Education stimulated the formation of work groups and much activity within each state. Many of the evaluation materials mentioned in the next paragraph were prepared by state groups as a part of the Study.

Recent years have brought forth a number of evaluation instruments in different states. Usually the state association of elementary-school principals has had an active role in these developments. Examples of activity at the state level are found in New Jersey, Virginia, Arkansas, Ohio, Oregon, Utah, Kansas, West Virginia, and Texas.⁷⁰ The movement toward 12-grade

⁶⁶ *Op. cit.*

⁶⁷ P. R. Mort, W. S. Vincent, and C. A. Newell, *The Growing Edge* (New York, The Metropolitan Study Council, 1949).

⁶⁸ Harold G. Shane and E. T. McSwain, *Evaluation and the Elementary Curriculum* (New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1951).

⁶⁹ Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Commission on Curricular Problems and Research, *Good Schools for Children*, *Elementary Evaluative Criteria*, *Education of Elementary School Personnel*, and *Promising Practices in Elementary Schools* (316 Peachtree Street, N.E., Atlanta, Ga., Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1951, 1950, 1951, and 1952).

⁷⁰ *Self-Evaluation in the Elementary School*, Elementary School Bulletin No. 11 (Trenton, State of New Jersey Department of Education, 1946); *Looking at Our Elementary Schools* (Richmond, Virginia State Department of Education, 1949); *Guide for Study of the Elementary School* (Little Rock, State of Arkansas Department of Education, 1950); *Ohio Elementary School Standards and Evaluation of Elementary Schools* (Columbus, Ohio State Department of Public Instruction, 1949); *Check-Chart for Standardization: Oregon Elementary Schools* (Salem, Oregon State Department of Public Instruction, 1947); *An Instrument for Evaluation of Elementary School Practices in Utah* (Salt Lake City, Utah Department of Public Instruction, 1948); *Kansas Elementary School Evaluation Guide* (Topeka, Kansas State Depart-

system-wide school evaluation and accreditation has probably made more progress in Texas than in any other state. Even prior to 1948 there was much sentiment among school people in the state for system-wide evaluation. Then in 1948, under the leadership of the Texas Executive Committee of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and interested individuals, the Texas Congress of Parents and Teachers made a grant of \$2500 to supplement a small fund made available by the aforementioned Committee for the purpose of undertaking a study designed to discover practical ways of conducting school evaluations on a system-wide basis. The project resulted in usable proposals and most school evaluations in Texas have been on a system-wide basis since 1949.⁷¹ It is anticipated that within a few years all school evaluations and accreditation by the Texas Education Agency will be on a 12-grade system-wide basis which will seek equally good programs at the elementary-school, junior-high-school, and senior-high-school levels.

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⁷¹ Frank Hubert, *System-Wide School Evaluation* (Austin, Texas Congress of Parents and Teachers and the Texas Executive Committee of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1949).

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Grouping Children for Wholesome Development

TEACHING CHILDREN IN groups has been and still is the prevailing method of instruction in American schools. Group instruction was first used by the Brethren of the Christian Schools about 1684¹ and was later developed by Andrew Bell in India and Joseph Lancaster in England.² The monitorial or Lancastrian plan for teaching was brought to this country by the Free School Society of New York in 1806³ and served a useful purpose in this country for more than 30 years by providing a means whereby large groups of children could be handled. Although numerous devices for individualizing instruction have been developed recently, group instruction still predominates in American schools. No doubt it will continue to be an important feature of educational procedure because it is believed that certain values contributing toward the social objectives of education accrue from group activities. Even in schools in which the tool subjects have been individualized, group activities are considered an important aspect of the program. Consequently, procedures for the organization of class groups must be used.

THE ORGANIZATION FOR GROUP GUIDANCE

Organizing children into groups for various kinds of school activities is such a daily, routine, commonplace occurrence in any on-going school that one is apt to overlook the fact that every school has one or more policies and practices regarding the way or ways in which these groups are assembled. Children are organized into certain groupings for classroom instructions; other groups are formed for athletic events; while still other groupings are made for other activities such as hobby clubs, assembly sessions, and dramatizations. The essential point is that every school has a

¹ H. H. Ryan and Philistine Crecelius, *Ability Grouping in the Junior High School* (New York, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1927), p. 19.

² E. P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1919), p. 90.

³ J. F. Reigart, *The Lancastrian System of Instruction in the Schools of New York City*, Contributions to Education, No. 81 (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1916), Ch. IV.

plan for the formation of instructional groups. The composite picture of the number, size, and types of children's groups that are found in a given school constitutes the structural framework of what may be called the organization for group guidance of children. To make this plan function smoothly each school has some policies and administrative procedures which are applied whenever groups are formed or re-formed, or the membership is altered.

What kinds of groups shall an elementary school have for children of various ages? Shall the size and the membership of the groups differ according to the kinds of experiences desired for children? By what criteria shall children be assigned to the various groups? How long is it profitable for a child to remain with the same associates? How does one determine when a child is improperly placed? What are the factors which promote effective group endeavor? What is the place of individualized instruction? These are but a few of the many issues confronting those who assume responsibility for guiding the growth and development of children. Obviously the problem of segregating children into instructional groups of convenient size is closely related to and inextricably associated with the question of school progress. The intimate relationship of these two aspects of school administration has led some authors to treat them together. It seems, however, that there are some problems associated with the classification of pupils which are rather fundamental and merit careful examination. Hence, a separate treatment is provided. Those problems which deal with the progress of pupils through school are reserved for the succeeding chapter.

THE NEED FOR GROUPING

It may seem trite to the state that the classification of pupils is basic to the effective execution of an educational program. Arranging pupils into groups for various school activities has become such a commonplace aspect of school administration that classification is likely to be taken for granted and not analyzed carefully to consider the ways in which sound classification procedures may aid in carrying out the purposes of elementary education. The need for grouping children arises from three sources. The most obvious of these is the fact that there are more pupils than teachers; some means must be used for allocating the students to their respective teachers. In a one-teacher school the problem of allocating pupils to teachers is met rather readily, but as soon as the faculty consists of two or more teachers, new problems of assignment arise.

The second need for classification arises from the objectives of education. The kind of program for well-rounded development of children which many schools are endeavoring to carry forward requires that children have many kinds of experiences in many kinds of situations with children of like ages and maturity as well as with children of different ages. Classification thus

becomes a multiple problem. The third need for grouping comes from the nature and interests of the children. Most children are extremely social beings; they crave association with other children, especially when there are common interests and purposes. Much intermotivation and learning from each other take place when children are in groups. The objective of human relationships could not be achieved if there were no opportunities for group endeavor. The opportunities for serving the latter two needs for grouping differ widely in various sized schools. A one-teacher school does not have the staff resources, the physical facilities, or the number of children necessary for a rich program of varied activities in different sizes and types of groups.

THE FUNCTIONS OF GROUPING

Perhaps the most obvious function of classification is the allocation of pupils in conveniently sized groups to rooms, classes, and teachers so the work of the school may proceed in an orderly and systematic fashion. A second function, not always so clearly recognized as the first, is to facilitate the execution of the educational policy. In some cities those in charge of the schools believe that one way of recognizing individual differences is to provide a differentiated curriculum for pupils of different levels of ability. Materials and methods of instruction are properly adjusted to the abilities of pupils in each of the differentiated groups. In order that such an educational policy may be carried out, it is necessary that the pupils who are to follow each course be selected. Perhaps the school district provides extensively for special classes of various kinds. Whether these classes be for the blind, the subnormal, or the gifted, the candidates for them must be designated. Thus classification must precede and is basic to the execution of an educational program.

A third, and perhaps the most important, function of classification is to place each child in a school environment which will provide the best stimulation and opportunities for growth. This implies a thorough study of each child to ascertain his *total* educational needs, and then to provide for him activities, experiences, and instruction according to the results of the diagnosis. Some writers have termed the latter process "grading," that is, placing the child in a "school grade" in which he is able to cope successfully with the scholastic tasks which have been prescribed for that grade. Such a concept of classification carries with it the impression that the child is to be fitted *to the school* rather than that the school organization is to be made flexible and fitted *to the child*. For more than half a century progressive education has sought the recognition of the individual and has emphasized the fact that the *school is for the child* and not the *child for the school*. Yet the literature on school administration to this day is replete with the notion that the organization is standard, permanent, and sacred, and that

the principal should be ever on the look-out to make sure that each child is continuously well fitted into the organization. The present writer is fully aware of the difficulties encountered by those in the field in making an organization flexible so that it may be adjusted to the needs of pupils, but he also believes that little progress will be made in practice toward the recognition of individual differences until those responsible for the organization and administration of schools change their point of view with reference to the relations of the school to the child and look upon the organization as a flexible agency whose services should be marshalled in the interest of children.

VIEWPOINT ON INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION

During the past three decades educational leaders in this country have waged a ceaseless campaign to rescue the individual child from the engulphments of routinized mass methods in education. Although no actual tabulation is at hand, it may not be too erroneous to state that more time and effort in educational research and more space in professional literature has been given during the past 20 or more years to the study of individual differences than to any other single topic. A review of this literature cannot help but impress one with the tremendous progress that has been made in understanding the individual nature of learning in all the tool subjects, the variations among individuals in the methods and rate of learning, and the impacts upon the individual of various environmental situations and the varying responses of individuals to these situations. Knowing the individual thoroughly and then dealing with him accordingly has become an almost universally accepted principle of education.

If individualized instruction or dealing with children as individuals is so basic to sound educational procedure, why give all this attention to the organization of groups? Is group work antithetical to individual instruction? Technically the two terms may be antithetical, but educationally they are the pillars which together make a sound educational program. One can place children in appropriate groups and deal with them effectively in group activities only as one knows each child thoroughly as an individual. Theoretically all learning is individual, but many worthwhile learnings can take place only in group situations. Even if one went to the extreme and organized the entire school program in terms of individual pupil progress, one still would have the problem of having one teacher supervise the work of 25 or more pupils. The problem of grouping is still present.

It should be evident that, from an educational standpoint, recognizing and meeting individual differences must be done in any sound educational program, and it must be done within the structure of handling children in groups. Group instruction alone is just as unsound and undesirable as having only individual instruction, even if the latter were possible.

GROUPING AS RELATED TO EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

The present situation with reference to the financing of schools makes it imperative that children in school be dealt with in groups. Up to the present no recognized thinker in America has recommended the abolition of group methods in education and the substitution therefore of an individual tutor for each child. Whether individual tutoring would be desirable for all children depends upon the purposes of education in the particular culture in which the practice is carried out. In any society some children (those who are hospitalized or isolated geographically) have to be tutored individually, but the discussion here pertains to society's basic plan for educating the large majority of children. The issue is therefore not whether children shall be handled in groups but rather how the grouping of children varies according to different views or statements of educational objectives.

If the school concentrates rather heavily or singularly upon the acquisition of subject-matter information, any plan of grouping is satisfactory which results in the efficient attainment of that purpose. At present this purpose prevails in many schools. Practically all the treatises in school administration relating to the classification of pupils are oriented to this objective of education. Especially characteristic in its orientation to this purpose of education is the research dealing with ability grouping. Many studies have been made in an effort to discover the best criteria for forming ability groups. Evaluation of ability grouping has been confined largely to comparisons of achievement in subject matter. No doubt this is a perfectly legitimate procedure if achievement in subject matter is the only concern.

As soon as a school manifests concern for objectives of education other than or in addition to subject-matter knowledge, the problem of grouping becomes more complex. The objective of human relationship implies that children be given opportunities to acquire skill and competence in various kinds of relations with other persons. Some of these relations are with other individuals; others are with small groups; while still others are with larger groups. In some relationships the child is a leader, chairman, committee member; in other situations a certain child finds himself a follower, or a silent participant in an audience situation. Whether groups formed on the basis of ability to learn subject matter produce the group composition best suited for developmental opportunities in human relationships has not been studied with sufficient care to warrant many conclusions. On the surface, a blanket affirmative answer would appear questionable.

Similar issues arise in connection with the objective of civic responsibility. Children should have opportunities to practice the assumption and discharge of civic responsibilities. Some civic responsibilities in school can be discharged in connection with class groups organized for the purpose of learning subject matter, but many realistic chances for developing a sincere

devotion to and skill in civic affairs does not happen in the kinds of groups now found in the typical organization of classes. The picture becomes still more complex when a school places major emphasis upon personality development.

Very few constructive answers are available to the several issues raised by the relationship between methods of grouping children and the purposes of education emphasized in a given school. One thing that can be said with reasonable confidence is that a unitary concept of grouping is inadequate in terms of present purposes of elementary education. In most schools the activities of children are not confined to the groups organized for the more specific purpose of classroom instruction. Children do get into groups of different size and of varying membership, so that the situation on the whole is not as inadequate as might be surmised. What is lacking, however, is a clear concept of the relationship which grouping has to the objectives of education and how the groups ought to be modified in accordance with the particular purposes sought through particular activities. There is no evidence to prove that the typical elementary-school class of 30 or 40 pupils, as now constituted, is either the best-sized group or has the best selection of members for an excursion to a milk plant or to stage a Christmas party.

A general view of the purposes of education in American democracy suggests that methods of grouping pupils in school should be consistent with the basic philosophy of American culture. The goal of the individual is self-realization in a democratic society. What plans for grouping will do this best remains to be determined. It is hoped that the remaining sections of this chapter will clarify related issues and indicate some practical steps.

In recent years many elementary schools have made more deliberate efforts to give fuller recognition to the hypothesis that all four of the major areas of child growth and development are equally important and that all four of the areas must be given appropriate recognition if the objectives of education are to be attained. If emotional and social development are to be given equal status with mental development, what implications does that have for pupil classification? If the status of physical development has important bearings upon emotional and social development, which in turn are related to interest and effort, what recognition in grouping should be given to physical maturity? Answers to these questions lie in the interrelationship between the various aspects of growth and development.

GROUPING AS RELATED TO AREAS OF CHILD GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

The implications which the characteristics of children's growth and development have for grouping may be viewed from two standpoints, namely, differences in rate of development and the interrelatedness of aspects of growth and development. The salient features of the former are summarized

in the following sentences. In the individual child, physical growth is seldom regular or uniform in all structures during the whole period of growth, nor is the rate of increase or change in growth uniform for all parts. At any given time the margin of advance is an irregular rather than a smooth line. Cycles of acceleration and deceleration characterize the development of the several parts, systems, or functions, as well as the total organism. When the growth potential is high in one system, the other interacting systems are dynamically affected. Even though each child follows his own growth pattern, many differences in pattern as well as in rate exist between individuals. Stages of physiological maturation are only loosely correlated with chronological age.

Figure 8 portrays some of the differences in physical growth of boys and girls. Note that the cycle of puberty for girls begins while many of them are in the fourth grade and that the cycle for boys begins approximately two years later. In eight-grade elementary schools the average girl will have

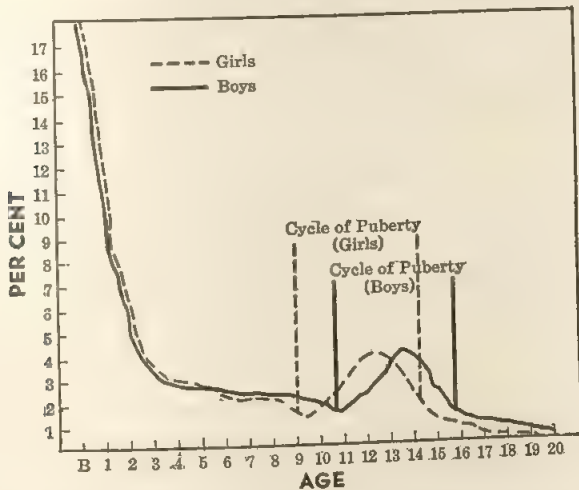


FIG. 8: Schematic curves of changes in rate of growth of boys and girls from birth to age 20 (schematic curve for boys from data provided by Stolz). From *Physiological Aspects of Child Growth and Development*, Division of Child Development and Teacher Personnel of the American Council on Education (1941).

completed the cycle of puberty by the end of the elementary-school career, whereas boys will just have reached the maximum rate of gain in physical growth. Other sex differences are equally significant. At given chronological ages to the end of adolescence, girls have attained approximately 10 per cent greater acceleration in physiological age than boys. Girls consistently exceed boys in the rate of anatomic development from birth to 18. Growth curves in average body weight generally show girls to be lighter than boys up to the age of 12, heavier than boys from the age of 12 to 15, then

lighter than boys after age 15.⁴ Some persons have ventured the proposal that the slower rate of physical development of boys may be an important factor in producing more behavior problems and more nonpromotion on the part of boys.

The interrelatedness of the various aspects of growth and development casts further light as well as additional complexities into the problem of grouping children for instructional purposes. Varying growth rates of different structures or body parts may involve difficulties of physical adjustment, especially in athletics. Large stature does not necessarily mean proportionately great physical endurance or the development of needed balance and adequate motor response. The ability to compete physically is closely associated with a child's achievement of confidence and his feelings of security in associating with his peers. Physical development is thus closely associated with the ego-integrative need and personality development. Changes of interests, attitudes, and purposes are closely related to the conditions of physical growth. Periods of marked acceleration of physical growth are usually accompanied by definite modifications in the child's social behavior. Children who show marked deviations in maturity, developing very late or very early, are sometimes subject to anxieties or patterns of withdrawal. Physical deformities or illness may have their repercussions in behavior disorders.⁵

The child's personal-social behavior is often greatly concerned with the establishment and maintenance of satisfactory peer relations. These relations are not always based upon equivalent mental or physical maturity. Any situation which affects the personal-social relationships of pupils usually results in considerable motivation; the direction which this motivation takes influences emotional and social development. The relationship between the affective life and other aspects of development is an index of the child's personality pattern. Relatively small, face-to-face groups exercise a greater influence upon the individual than do larger groups in which there is less behavioral interchange between the members. Formal groups, spontaneous groups, uncontrolled groups, and autocratically controlled groups have different effects upon the individual. Compactly organized groups with a clear purpose have more influence upon the individual than have loosely organized groups with vague purposes. Group relationships modify the child's emotional stability. Self-confidence and a feeling of adequacy are important factors in emotional health and in the development of attitudes. Attitudes play a significant role in development, particularly social and mental development. Disabilities in academic subjects may be fundamental to mal-

⁴ For a more extended summary of research on physical growth of children, see Walter S. Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, rev. ed. (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1950), pp. 153-165.

⁵ Leo Kanner and S. E. Lockman, "The Contribution of Physical Illness to the Development of Behavior Disorders in Children," *Mental Hygiene*, Vol. XVII (October, 1933), pp. 605-617.

adjustment when lack of competence in these areas places the child at a disadvantage in satisfying his social needs.⁶

In recent years the study of the interrelationships of the aspects of child growth and development has taken the form of longitudinal studies in which measurements are made periodically on the same children over a period of years as contrasted with cross-sectional studies of different children at different age levels. Olson and his associates at the University of Michigan have organized their data to cast new light on these developmental factors. Their approach is clarified in the following quotation.⁷

The following pages illustrate methods of work on the organism as a whole in progress in the Child Development Laboratories of the University of Michigan. The unique emphasis of modern research in child development is the attempt to discover laws which govern the organism as a whole through time rather than generalizations based on single attributes at a point.

The age principle has been used to portray growth data collected in many forms in an intelligible manner. Under this plan, one may refer such diverse things as height in inches, weight in pounds, number of teeth erupted, and strength of grip in kilograms to a common scale and speak of height ages, weight ages, dental ages, and grip ages. Scales for appraising the ossification of the hand and wrist bones use the method of matching an X-ray with a typical sample to yield carpal age. The age principle has long been used in the statement of mental and educational test results. The use of an age unit does not carry with it any necessary assumptions as to standards or norms and is best understood in terms of operations. A more detailed description of the method may be obtained upon inquiry.

The growth curves (not reproduced here) illustrate the extent to which the organism is a unified whole. The attributes of the individual are usually less variable than they are for a group of children. The tendency toward unified organization is one of the first generalizations of the organism as a whole. More detailed analysis leads to a study of plateaus, spurts, timelag, and patterns. It is from evidence of this type that we conclude that educational achievement is a function of growth as a whole rather than of any single attribute such as mental age. Child 6 (chart not reproduced here), whose reading curve is apparently out of line, reveals the necessity for wider sampling in certain individuals. The addition of a growth curve for grip age does not alter the total pattern. However, the growth curve for vascular age is in the area of the reading age. The individual graphs on pages three and four illustrate some of the problems occurring in children with "split growth." A complete account must eventually include the relation of the organism to the environmental field.

An extensive collection of journal material, parent interviews, personality ratings, and medical records add to the possibilities of interpretation of the interrelated character of experience and growth. The trend is for children with "luxuriating" growth to have fewer problems of personal and social adjustment than those in whom growth is sluggish.

⁶ P. Blanchard, "Reading Disabilities in Relation to Maladjustment," *Mental Hygiene*, Vol. XII, pp. 772-788; A. I. Gates, "Failure in Reading and Social Maladjustment," *Journal of the National Education Association*, Vol. XXV (October, 1936), pp. 205-206.

⁷ W. C. Olson and B. O. Hughes, "The Child as a Whole." Brochure obtainable from the authors at the University of Michigan.

In order to simplify the study of problems of the organism as a whole, we have used the concept of "organismic age" which is the mean value of all of the separate ages available for a child. The center of gravity of the organism so determined is revealed to be a very stable thing in the curves for the six children on page five. The stability of the total organism and its tendency to resist displacement while single attributes vary offers new possibilities for prediction and for understanding.

Olson's procedure and data are further illustrated by the following quotation and charts.⁸

Previous chapters have described the physical, mental, and educational growth of the child and his emotional and social development. The hypothesis of the present chapter is that all types of growth occur in a child in some type of functional interdependency. This hypothesis is historically old and has been both defended and challenged in reports of research and in reviews of investigations. The most intensive search has been made for relationships between physical traits and intelligence. These investigations have been ably reviewed through 1930 by Paterson.* He concludes,

"Our detailed survey of available quantitative evidence has demonstrated that prevalent notions regarding the intimacy of the relationship between physical traits and intellect have been greatly exaggerated. Search in the realm of gross anatomy for a physical correlate of intellect has yielded uniformly negative results. It appears that such structural characteristics as height and weight are correlated only slightly with intelligence, narrowly defined. Even measurements of head size and shape are found to be relatively independently variable with respect to intellect, and skeletal development measured by precise X-ray photography yields either zero or low correlations with intelligence. The same may be said of dentition. Physiological development, measured in terms of pubescence, is found to be relatively unrelated to mental development, and so are complicated morphological indices of body build."

It should be noted that Paterson was reviewing studies that had been primarily pursued by averages and correlations in the cross-sectional study of groups of children. The trend of the evidence is toward some positive relationship, though low. Reviewing the literature to 1933, Jones † concluded that the correlation between any one measure of physical size (age a constant) and any one measure of mental status was uniformly too low for predictive purposes, usually below .30 and quite commonly between .10 and .20. The use of combinations of physical traits failed to give indications of higher relationships. In a more recent review Jones ‡ again presents correlational data in which the trend is toward low positive correlation.

The persistence of notions concerning the related character of growth in the face of small intercorrelations is probably attributable to workers with children who have been struck by instances of concomitant variations. New support for the hypothesis is now coming from the repeated examinations of the same

* D. G. Paterson, *Physique and Intellect*, New York: The Century Co., 1930, p. 269.

† H. E. Jones, "Relationships in Physical and Mental Development." *Review of Educational Research*, III (April 1933), 150-162, 177-181.

‡ *Review of Educational Research*, VI (February 1936), 103-123.

⁸ W. C. Olson, "The Concept of the Organism as a Whole: Interrelationships in Physical, Mental, Social, and Emotional Development," *Pupil Development and the Curriculum* (Ann Arbor, Mich., Bureau of Educational Reference and Research, 1937), pp. 93-99.

children over a long period of years. Such growth studies are now in progress at the University of California, the State University of Iowa, Harvard University, the University of Michigan, and other centers. It appears probable that the statistical techniques employed in the past have obscured the real nature of the related character of growth. Even though more and less of certain traits may not be highly related from child to child, yet the growth changes within a given child may show evidence of patterning. Reverberations of large environmental changes involving physical or emotional shock or educational and physical deprivation may be noted throughout the growth system.

The purpose of the present chapter is to develop a conception of the growing child as an organic unity and to illustrate the types of evidence on which the conception is based. A more extensive discussion of the growth theory involved may be found in the writings of Frank. Students of the process of growth determine what is taking place in the growing child by securing data on changes in the magnitude and relationship of various structures and functions. According to the organismic conception, these changes are interrelated in some type of dynamic balance.

In the University Elementary School, the nature of growth is being investigated by the re-examination of the same children year after year according to a schedule of physical, mental, social, and emotional measures. As a matter of convenience in presenting the material in this chapter, the various measures have been translated into ages. Thus, height in inches is translated into a height age, weight in pounds into a weight age, number and area of wrist bones into a carpal age, the number of teeth erupted into a dental age, the number of tests successfully performed on a mental scale into a mental age, and a composite of achievement in school subjects into an educational age. In the present series, reading age, as one of the subject ages, has been used for illustrative purposes. Various other ages are being experimented with at the present time, but will not appear in this report. In addition to the measures that may be translated into the age principle, other instruments are used which reveal individual differences and qualitative factors. Among these are the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Scale as a measure of problem tendencies, the Marston Scale as a measure of introversion-extroversion and the Behavior Journal as a record of incidental experiences that may cause perturbations in the growth system.

Space will permit the reproduction of but three illustrative cases here. Figure 9 illustrates accelerated growth in a constructively extroverted boy with low problem tendencies. The curves are to be interpreted in the following manner. The base line gives the year of the examination. The age of the child at any given time is obtained by first reading upward from the base line until the solid, straight, diagonal line labeled "C. A." (Chronological Age) is encountered, and then by reading across horizontally to the vertical guide. Maturity of the child in terms of the various other ages represented may be determined as of any given date in a similar manner. Our interest, however, is not primarily in reading the graph in this fashion. What we wish to observe in a general way is that five out of six of the growth curves for this child are above the line which is typical for children of his life age. Further, they are often increasing at a rate greater than one year of growth per year of life. The exception occurs in the case of dental age, which is below the chronological line but appears to be converging toward it. Another point of general interest is the appearance of certain plateaus or periods of slow gain which seem to be reflected in the various curves, sometimes in synchronization and sometimes with varying time lags. It is the appearance of synchronous change which impresses the

student of child development with the fact that a change in any part of the growth system is likely to be accompanied by changes in other parts. Figure 9 is not an isolated case of a superior child showing a certain "going togetherness" in both mental and physical growth. We have many such in our research files. In terms of problem tendencies, the boy represents an unusually well-adjusted child; that is, he gets along well with associates, the teachers find him amenable to reasonable control, and the parents are not unduly concerned over him. Interestingly enough, good general behavioral adaptation appears with great regularity in children whose growth curves are "luxuriating" in this fashion.

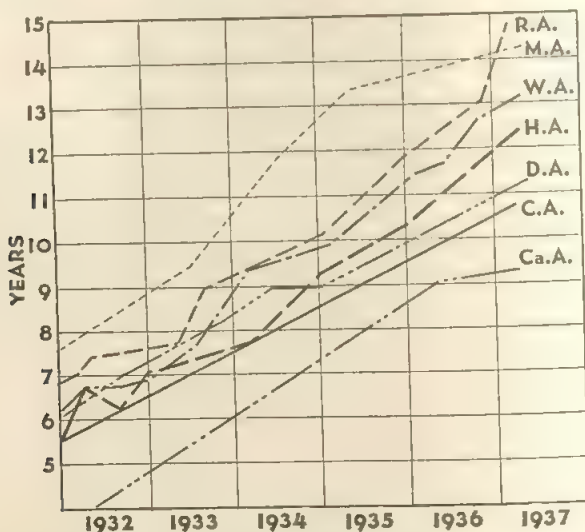


FIG. 9: Accelerated growth in an extroverted boy with low problem tendencies. Abbreviations refer to carpal age, chronological age, dental age, height age, weight age, mental age, and reading age.

Figure 10 also represents an extroverted boy, but one who secures a high rating in problem tendencies. His growth curves differ greatly from those for the preceding boy and are marked by erraticism, plateaus, slow growth, and a tendency to move away from the line for his life age. This means that he is not making a normal annual gain. This boy would be commonly described as a case of reading disability because of the discrepancy between his mental age, life age, and reading age. However, when we view him in terms of the total picture presented by the graph, we are impressed with the fact that the growth in reading is an expression of the personality as a whole. The problem is not one to be accounted for in purely sensory or learning terms. Lack of responsiveness to remedial teaching further demonstrates the deep-rooted character of the problem. We are finding slow growth of the organism as a whole characteristic of children having difficulties in reading or in general behavior.

The third illustration we have employed, Figure 11, is that of a boy whose growth curves are on either side of the curve of average development. A distinctive feature of this set of curves is the evidence of rapid change occurring early in 1936. In the case of Reading Age, this growth has been almost twice normal expectancy and the boy is now well above the achievement of typical children of his life age. In earlier periods, as in 1934-35 when the growth curves

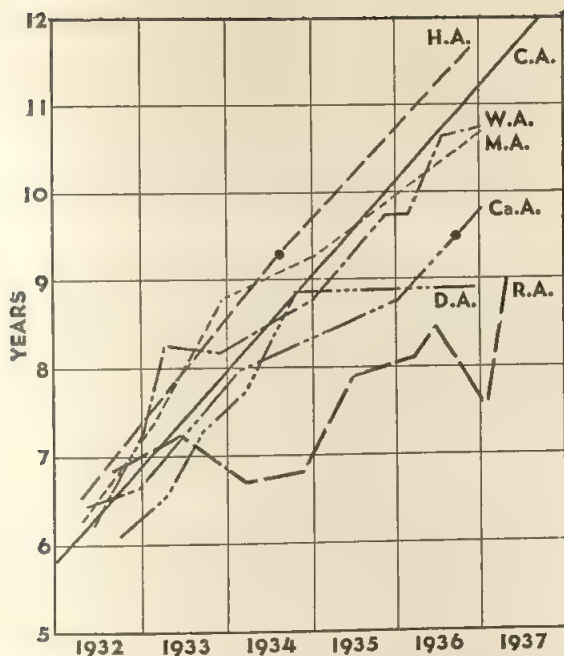


FIG. 10: Retarded growth in an extroverted boy with high problem tendencies. Abbreviations refer to carpal age, chronological age, dental age, height age, mental age, reading age, and weight age.

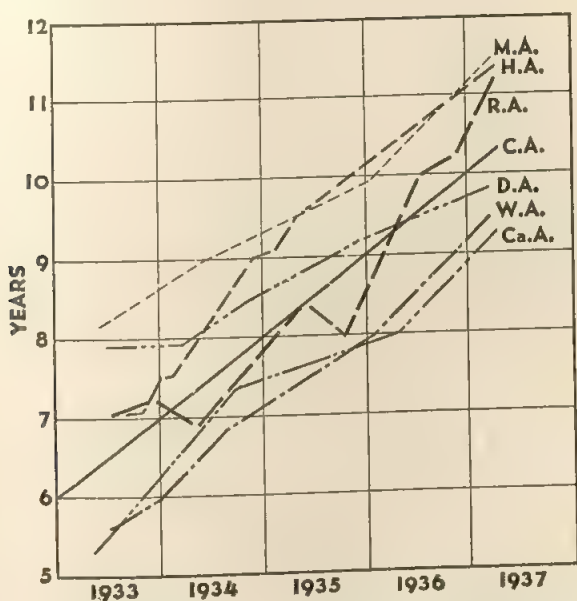


FIG. 11: "Average" growth with rapid change in an extroverted boy with low problem tendencies. Abbreviations refer to carpal age, chronological age, dental age, height age, mental age, reading age, and weight age.

seemed to be changing rather slowly, he was actually under the typical performance of children. This child is somewhat better than average in adjustment in terms of problem tendencies. The only curve which seems to be showing less than average gain in recent years is that for dental age, and this may be attributable somewhat to the coarse units in which dental age is measured. If this assumption is correct, the dental age curve shortly will show a very abrupt upward sweep.

Needless to say, much work remains to be done before we can completely understand and generalize the findings illustrated in the preceding cases. Among the technical problems presented are the lack of comparable norms for large numbers of children on the various kinds and things for which we might determine ages. It is also possible that the use of the age method at times minimizes and conceals some parallelism (mentioned by Courtis, who had developed an isochronic system of units in order to take account of the fact that growth is a relative matter and that children, for most accurate comparisons, need to be described in units which will take account of initial status, rate of progress, and the mature status to which they are going).

Still other problems lie in the physiological and psychological explanations of the changes that occur. In connection with cases in the University Elementary School we have extended records of traumatic emotional experiences, of the effects of disease, of injury, and of evidences of the onset of the prepuberal spurt in growth. The effects of such factors on growth will receive more extended consideration elsewhere.

One who becomes impressed with the intimacy of the relationship of the various aspects of growth thereafter must be more sensitive to the possible effect of the types of environmental situations planned for the education of the child. Physical, educational, and social features of the environment will be expected either to facilitate or handicap the growth processes. These effects are not confined to the area in which the child is being stimulated.

Quite apart from the hypothesis of the relationship of various aspects of growth within the organism, the student of child development is struck by the individuality of growth curves and by the futility of setting any standard in terms of group averages or in terms of considerations extrinsic to the individual child. It is not surprising that the student of growth becomes impatient with an emphasis on minimum essentials, grade standards, classification, promotion, and marking systems. These practices, apparently, have quite negligible effects in terms of growth patterns when subjected to comparative studies. At times there is some reason to assume that such effects as are obtained are actually detrimental to the general behavioral adjustment of the person.

SOCIOMETRY OF SCHOOL GROUPS

Knowing the growth status and developmental picture for each child is important in forming school groups, but there is another equally important variable, namely, the psychological composition of the group and the interrelations of individuals therein. Moreno has defined sociometry as the mathematical study of psychological properties of population groups. The experimental technique and the results obtained by application of quantitative methods is the peculiar province of sociometry. Such study includes the evolution and organization of groups and the position of individuals within them. One of its special concerns is to ascertain the quantity and expansion

of psychological currents as they pervade the population group.⁹ It is in these person-to-person relationships in various sizes and types of groups that many social needs are met and personality development has its roots.

Psychologists and sociologists differ widely as to the important elements in a group situation. The psychologist maintains that group phenomena must be explained in terms of the characteristics of the individual members of the group. The sociologist, on the other hand, holds that the individual loses some of his identity as he functions in cooperation with others and plays his role in relationship to the personalities manifest by the others in the group. The group is something more than the sum of its parts. The group is primary to the parts and fundamental to them. Chapin and Conway summarize the sociologists' viewpoint as follows: ¹⁰

In defense of the sociological point of view, however, it must be explained that a superindividual or superorganic 'mind' has no part in the theory of the group as an entity with independent existence; that is to say, the attributes of a group, apart from the individuals of which it is composed, are functions of the interrelations and interdependence existing within it. In his insistence that social phenomena must be explained in psychological terms, Allport has made a significant contribution to our understanding of groups and group processes. That groups cannot be completely understood if the existence of the individual is denied, we concede; but we also insist that the obverse of this statement is equally valid; namely, individual behavior cannot be interpreted without reference to social and cultural phenomena. In dealing with social facts, therefore, both approaches are admissible, and either may be used according to the main consideration of the problem and the purpose of the investigation.

A peculiar interrelationship exists between the whole individual, the data of individual psychology, and the group, the major category of sociology. The individual personality consists of a hierarchy of persons, or selves, each of which represents an aspect of his personality developed in a given group association and integrated into the total pattern of behavior. The group, on the other hand, consists of parts of personalities knit together into a pattern of collective behavior. A man may, for example, function in a family, a profession, a church, a golf club, and other social groups, each of which contributes to the total organization and integration of his personality. Within the family group of which he is a member, however, only a segment of his personality—and of those of the other members—is comprised in the social whole. Groups are organized wholes in which each member has status. Thus, membership in an economic organization may, for a host of individuals, range from the lowly position of a factory hand or errand boy to chairman of the board of directors, yet all represent interrelated and interdependent parts of a functioning whole, or entity, that is known to the world by its corporate name. Other parts of the personalities of the individuals involved may cohere to form a multiplicity of additional group patterns ranging from the closely knit family and neighborhood groups to those in which relationship is so impersonal that the individual members are unacquainted with one another.

⁹ J. L. Moreno, *Who Shall Survive?* (New York, Beacon House, 1934), pp. 10-11.

¹⁰ F. S. Chapin and M. I. Conway, "The Social Group in Education," *The Grouping of Pupils*, Thirty-fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part 1 (Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1936), pp. 60-61.

In terms of sociological viewpoints, Chapin and Conway make the following comments about school groups.¹¹

The school represents one of the major groupings within the community but it differs from other local groups in several respects. In the first place, membership in a community group is voluntary; school enrollment is a matter of compulsion. The members of the community groups, moreover, are drawn together by common purposes and interests, and trade affiliations. The child, on the contrary, does not enter school by virtue of his interest in learning as such, although the school may approximate a voluntary grouping in the first instance to the extent that other members of the primary groups to which the child belongs, including the family and play group, have succeeded in building up positive and forward-looking attitudes during the pre-school period, and to the extent that other members of his play group are also members of the intermediate group. The degree to which that initial interest is maintained, increased, or diminished, however, depends largely upon subsequent experience in the school situation.

Another point of difference between membership in a community group and school attendance lies in the fact that the former affiliation may be discontinued at will if initial interest wanes. In the event that interest in school life either diminishes or completely disappears, however, the school child can accomplish little in the nature of an immediate, direct adjustment, whereas he can drop out of a play group that has failed to fulfill his early expectations. School attendance is enforced by law; consequently there is no recourse in the face of difficulties without involving both parents and school authorities.

The task of the educator is to train the child in the skills and techniques requisite to adequate social living in a changing world. His success in attaining this objective, however, is conditioned largely by his methods of stimulating the child and maintaining any interest exhibited in school activities. Groupings within the school approximating as closely as possible those of the community suggest a method of attacking this problem of motivation. A heterogeneous aggregation of school children at any grade level, it must be remembered, does not constitute a group in the sociological sense. Interaction and mutual stimulation, based upon common interest as a cohesive force, and expressed in the participation of its members, are the essence of group life; and so long as these continue, the group may be expected to survive. Strictly speaking, any plan for the division of children with reference to a criterion, for purposes of training, is merely classification. If such classifications are arranged on the basis of criteria that are significant to the individuals concerned, however, true group activity may be expected to eventuate. If, on the other hand, the bases of classification are meaningful only to administrators and teachers, such gains can hardly be anticipated.

In the light of the foregoing, the validity of composite scores as a criterion in sectioning may be questioned when such scores are measures of widely differing traits or abilities. Since group relations are formed on the basis of bonds originating in the significant common experiences of the individuals concerned, and since composite scores including a variety of mental and achievement tests and other miscellaneous data yield averages of doubtful significance, it naturally follows that the failure of true groups to emerge from classifications so derived is not surprising.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 63-64.

Of special interest to school people are the internal processes of groups. Reference is again made to the article by Chapin and Conway¹² for a sociological view of the problem.

The nature and the degree of an individual's participation in the community life is directly related to his own interests. The intensity of his participation may range from mere physical presence at group gatherings to active leadership in the formulation and execution of group policies. The degree to which a person participates in the functional activities of a group, like any other objective social fact, may be measured and stated in quantitative terms.

Active participation in the varied phases of approved associative life confers prestige upon the participant and gives him social status within the community. To the versatility and varied interests exhibited by some group members may be attributed their tendency to function as leaders in both major and minor group activities. Many more individuals possess the necessary background of information and experience to assume occasional positions of minor leadership within their various group relationships, but always there is that great mass of actual and potential followers who are never entrusted with key positions in any group, but who by their loyalty to its ideals and standards, and their eager, active participation in its undertakings win for themselves the personal satisfactions that accrue from cooperative activity in socially approved endeavor. The satisfactions so acquired, consisting largely of the friendly interest and esteem reflected in the attitudes of others, are a product of the process of interstimulation and interactivity itself.

Satisfying participation in an optimal number of groups facilitates integration of personality. Varying modes of response win either approval or disapproval in specific situations, and out of the increments of learning that accrue from repeated experience in a variety of social situations character traits are formed. Character traits are segments of behavior sufficiently organized and integrated to constitute general guides to conduct. Character is the pattern that the mores approve, and the individual whose behavior conforms to the expectations of his fellows in all or a majority of situations is said to possess that desirable quality.

One of the most valuable outcomes of the educational process is the ability to get on with one's fellows. Participation in the varied activities of the group gives social status in the school as well as in the community. The measure of a child's participation will depend largely upon his conception of the relative merit of his own abilities, this self-estimate having been acquired through observation of the behavior of others toward him. The nature and degree of individual participation in the common life of the school, however, tends to vary with the homogeneity of the school groupings in terms of a criterion that is of significance to each of the individual members of the several associative units; and within each major group it will approach the maximum in proportion as the members are neither discouraged by the superiority of a preponderance of their classmates nor so bored by their relative dullness that the stimulation necessary to the exertion of their best efforts is wanting. The fact that community groups, representing voluntary associations of individuals with common interests and purposes, include all orders of ability has implications for the school. During the process of interaction various talents and capacities may be revealed, with

¹² *Ibid.*, pp. 165-167, 348-352, 374. See also Long and Smith, *Fields and Methods of Sociology*, ed. by L. L. Bernard (New York, Farrar and Rinehart, 1934), pp. 500-501.

the result that a number of sub-groups may be formed to facilitate the functioning of the larger entity. In the school community, likewise, sub-groupings should take cognizance of individual differences in experience, ability, sex, social origins, and the like within a group the members of which are homogeneous with reference to a single interest. The available evidence in support of the contention that patterns of ability exist among all children regardless of intellectual level suggests the inadequacy of the composite score as a general criterion in the sectioning of pupils. The expected contribution of a pupil in any group should not be at variance with the measure that his experience, mentality, and manifested interests indicate he is capable of achieving; and as new preoccupations appear, provision should be made for their development as completely as the best interests of the child will permit.

In view of the fact that under present arrangements the school controls at least six of the child's waking hours each day for from eight to twenty years, it should be expected to assume a substantial share of the responsibility for his personal integration and social functioning. These objectives, however, constitute two aspects of a single reality: namely, the development of the whole child, which may be achieved through participation in socially approved groups representing every aspect of his personality. But membership in the school group may contribute little to such integration if the child fails to find opportunity to function in the normal activities of school life, both social and intellectual. Thwarted children will not long continue to remain disinterested observers in any arena of activity. They may find satisfaction in secondary contacts, which contribute little and may even prevent personality integration, or they may seek self-expression in gang activities and other patterns of behavior that the mores condemn.

The need of an individual to succeed, which may be explained by the traditional requirement of success in some line of endeavor as a condition of social approval and acceptance, is a problem that cannot be considered apart from the fact of individual differences. The existence of inequalities between individuals has been recognized by observers in groups both simple and complex, and in cultures both near and remote with reference to time and space. The vigorous growth of the democratic ideal in Europe and America during the last few centuries, however, has tended to encourage an attitude unfavorable to a just appreciation of such variations; but ignoring such differences has eliminated neither the inequalities among men nor the tangible evidence of their existence.

That other factors besides intelligence are necessary concomitants of the personality of the successful individual has also been recognized. The researches of numerous investigators tend to confirm the argument that achievement is a function of interest, persistence, experience, and many other factors as well as mentality. But it is in the process of interstimulation and response within the group that such varying innate and acquired characteristics are developed and attain significance. In other words personality integration and adjustment are functions of group life.¹³

From early beginnings made by Moreno, Murphy,¹⁴ and Tryon,¹⁵ the technique and uses of sociometry have been extended by many students of

¹³ Chapin and Conway, *op. cit.*, pp. 68-70.

¹⁴ L. B. Murphy, *Social Behavior and Child Personality* (New York, Columbia University Press, 1937).

¹⁵ C. M. Tryon, *Evaluations of Adolescent Personality by Adolescents*, Monograph, Vol. IV, No. 4 (Washington, Society for Research in Child Development, 1939).

the problem.¹⁶ Sociometry is a device for revealing preferences, likes, and dislikes among members of a group and for portraying group structure, sub-groups, leaders, isolates, and rival factions. The most vivid way to reveal the findings of this kind of inquiry is to construct a chart (a sociogram) in which the pupil choices are diagrammed. A sociogram also helps a teacher to discover whether there are any children who are unhappy and withdrawn, rejected or ignored. By combining sociometric findings with observational data the teacher can obtain insight into the factors and causes of interpupil relations.

Although space cannot be given in this book for a full description of the ins and outs of gathering sociometric data, constructing sociograms, and using sociometric findings, enough information will be presented to introduce the reader to the idea. Gathering the information for a sociogram is not difficult. In some instances the procedure is merely that of providing each member of the class with a sheet of paper on which there is space for the child to write his name; then, spaced some distance apart, are three statements like these:

I would like best to *work* with these members of our class:

I would like best to *play* with these children in our class:

I would like best to have these children *sit* near me:

Below each statement is enough space for the pupil to write the names of three children.

A generalized approach, such as the one just described, is not as good as a particularized one relating to an activity in which the class is about to engage. Suppose the seating arrangement in the lunchroom is due for a shuffle or the unit in science has reached the stage where committees are to be organized. The teacher then has a chance to focus pupil choices very realistically upon something which is to take place in the immediate future. The teacher can then request pupils to list their first, second, and third choices with reference to the occasion at hand. She can tell them further that she will keep their choices in mind as the arrangements are made and that each one can be assured of being with at least one or more of the persons they have named. This procedure keeps faith with the children and

¹⁶ M. E. Bonney, "The Relative Stability of Social, Intellectual, and Academic Status in Grades II to IV, and the Interrelationships Between These Various Forms of Growth," *Journal of Educational Psychology* (February, 1943), pp. 88-102; Helen H. Jennings, *Sociometry in Group Relations* (Washington, American Council on Education, 1949); Willard C. Olson, *Child Development* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1949), Ch. 8, "The Human Relations of the Classroom"; Raleigh Schorling and G. Max Wingo, *Elementary-School Student Teaching* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1950), Ch. 2, "Learning to Understand Pupils"; Ruth Cunningham and associates, *Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951).

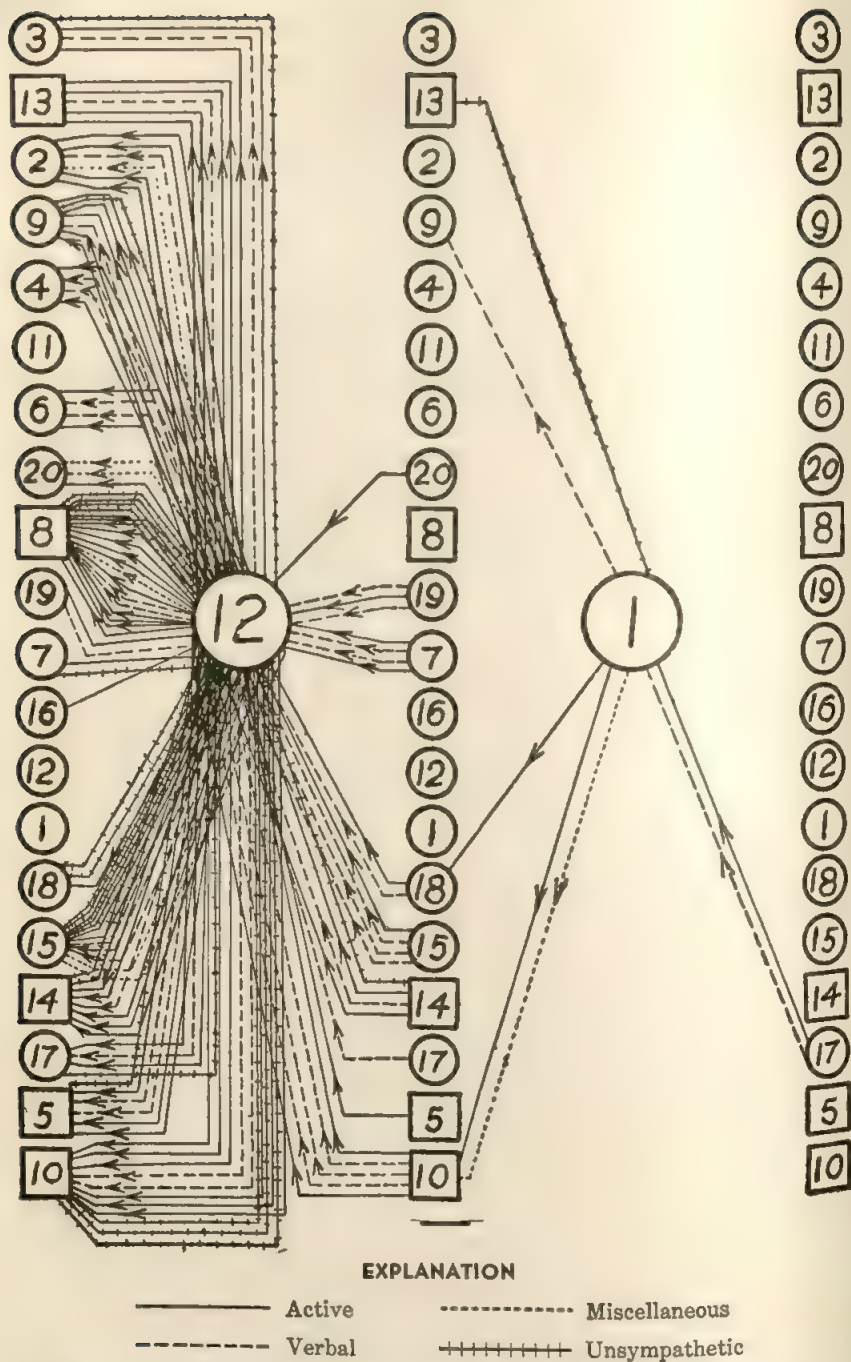


FIG. 12: Diagram of individual roles in the group—Julius (12), 49 months, and Alex (1) 51 months. Although close to the same age and developmental level, this markedly extroverted boy and extremely introverted boy have strongly contrasting roles in the group. (Girls are numbered in squares, boys in circles, from the youngest at the top to the oldest at the bottom.)

makes them feel that there is purpose and genuineness in the exercise. The data obtained from children's choices may be charted in different ways.

Figures 12, 13, 14, and 15 illustrate different types of sociograms. Figure 12 is taken from Murphy's report of her study of the social behavior and personality of nursery school children by observing manifestations of sympathy. The published report of her study opens with the following pertinent paragraph:¹⁷

Human society is based largely upon the capacity of individual human beings to interpret and respond to the behavior of other human beings; the more cooperative and closely knit the structure of a given society becomes, the more demands are put upon individuals to respond to the needs of others. Sympathy, when it is sensible and genuine, not merely a projection of the sympathizer's anxiety or a way of dominating others, is intimately connected with all the other responses of a friendly and constructive nature that are the foundation of a cooperative society. It appears in very young children; yet it has scarcely been studied at all. We have almost no scientific material even on such questions as the age at which children sympathize in different ways, and none at all on the cultural or personality factors that are tied up with different sorts of sympathetic behavior.

The phase of Murphy's study which is of special interest here is the relationship of children to each other in each of the nursery school groups. As soon as a child becomes a member of a nursery-school group he becomes a member of a world quite different from that of the average family circle in the typical home in the community. He becomes a member of a small world of children, with all the individual differences found in a typical school group. This world of children furnishes a major part of his social diet during a large portion of his waking hours. In it the child is constantly assimilating one thing or another by direct imitation, by spontaneous reaction to things which other children do or to situations they create, by resistance to pressures of various kinds, by repeated experience of tensions aroused by the mere presence, frequently in crowded quarters, of the other children who are competing with him for the use of the available equipment, for the attention of the teacher, and for other kinds of recognition necessary to the satisfaction of social and ego-integrative needs. It is this interplay of personalities in the constantly shifting group situations which constitutes the sociopsychological field to which each child is constantly reacting, within which each child is endeavoring to satisfy his needs, and which is continuously having its impacts upon each child.

The structure of the group relationships and the role of individual nursery school children within the group may be seen more clearly in Figure 12. This particular chart was chosen because it highlights the roles of children of near-kindergarten age. One must remember that the relationships shown

¹⁷ Murphy, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

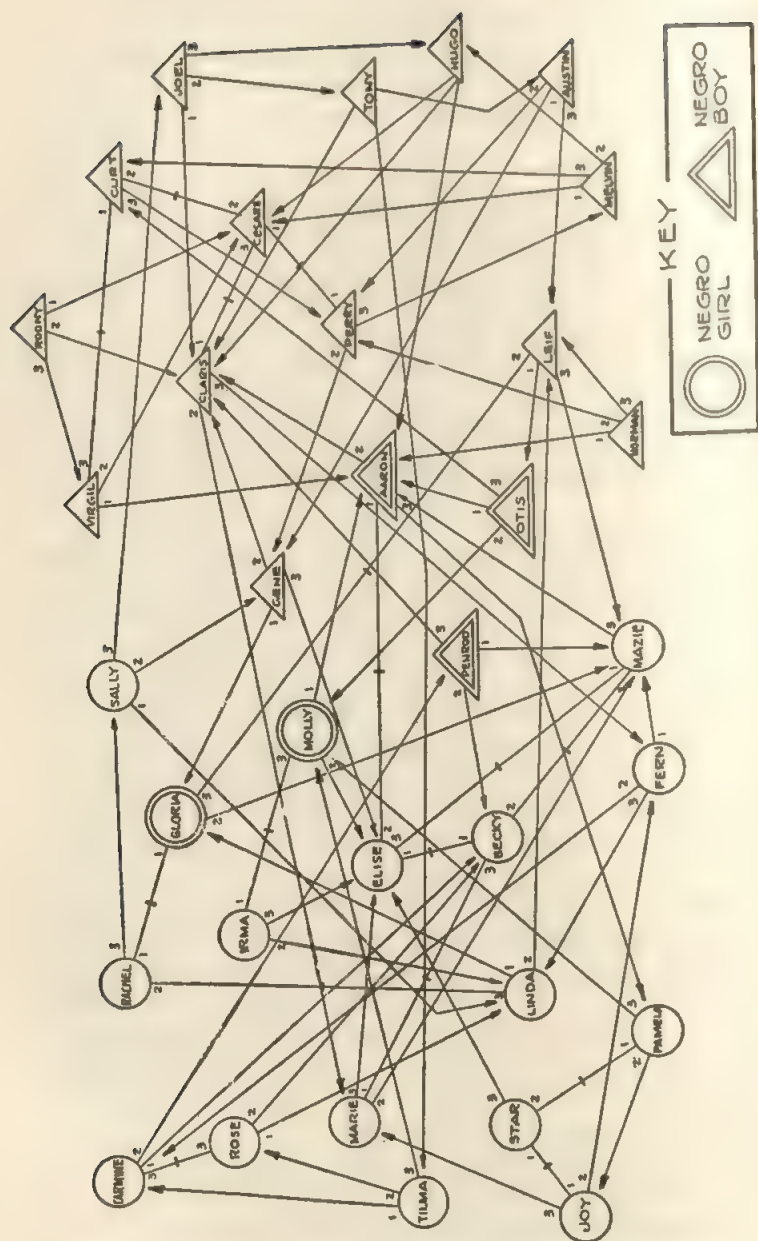
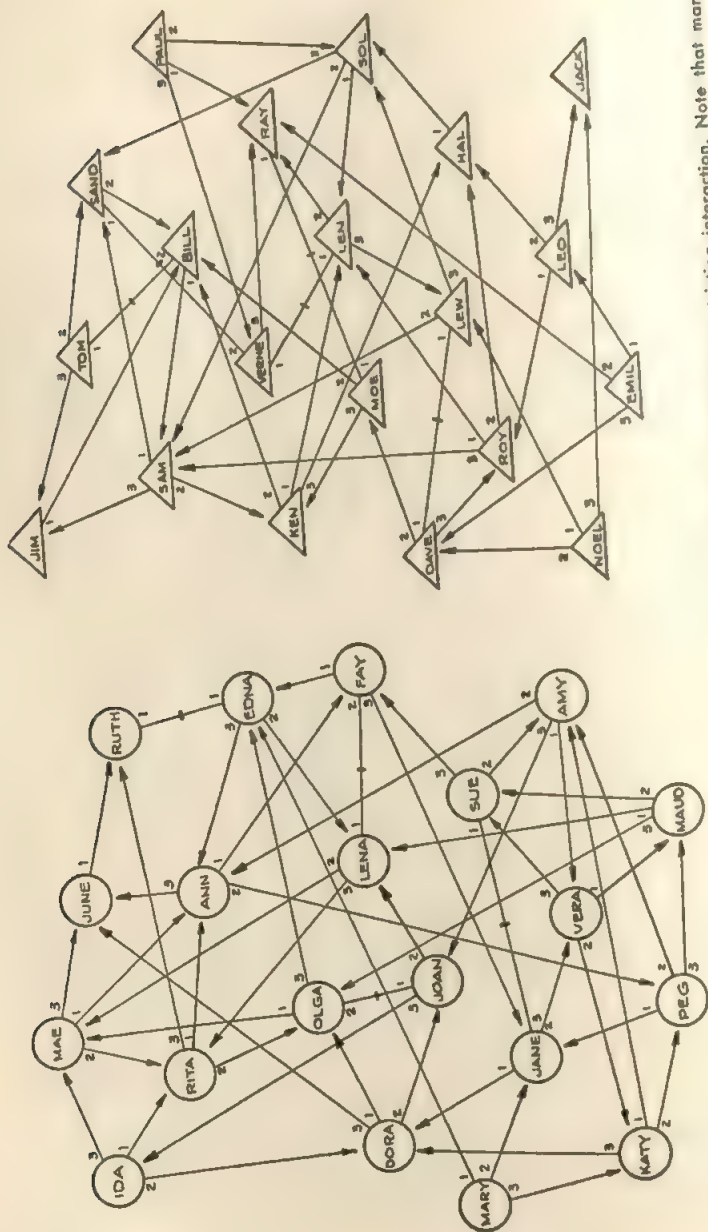


FIG. 13: Sociogram of a sixth-grade class, showing interpersonal structure under an atmosphere promoting interaction. From Helen H. Jennings, *Sociometry in Group Relations*, p. 78. Reproduced by permission of the publisher, American Council on Education.

in the diagram are based solely upon responses of sympathy to various kinds of distress situations such as a child falling down, bumping his head, hurting his finger, and so on. If all kinds of child contacts with other children were recorded, a much more complicated design would result. The almost complete isolation of some children as well as the overshadowing of attention received by others is clearly evident in the diagram.

In a democratically managed classroom there is much wholesome give and take among members of the group. Communication takes place easily among all members of the class. There are fewer isolated children and cliques, and conflict groups are less apt to arise. Figure 13 depicts inter-pupil relations in such a class. There is a broad spread of much-chosen positions. Negro children are as well integrated as the rest. The intersex cleavage and the tendency toward closed formations, usual at the sixth grade level, do not appear. These conditions are quite in contrast to the circumstances portrayed in Figure 14 showing a fifth grade in which a premium was placed on obedience and keeping quiet. Permission had to be asked for even such minor things as sharpening a pencil. The teacher dealt with children only on a strict and businesslike basis. The physical arrangements minimized, if they did not actually destroy, social give and take. Children were assigned to their seats on the basis of the teacher's concept of good behavior, the criterion being the amount of talking or whispering that had taken place. The result was that each child was, in the end, placed as far away as possible from those to whom he felt most attracted. Praise was given for ability to accomplish tasks individually, for not disturbing others, and for being self-sufficient. School hours permitted few occasions for informal communication among the pupils. The sociogram shows that one-way choices predominate, and that there are actually fewer reciprocated choices than are usually found in a first grade. The atmosphere may have been so hostile to social contacts that no personalities could make themselves known.

In addition to showing the preferences of the children themselves, Figure 15 also shows the "social distance score," which is an index of a child's popularity in the group. The social distance score is merely the total of the number of times a child is chosen by his classmates on a sociometric test. In Figure 15 the top 25 per cent, those who were chosen most frequently, were placed in the inner circle. The next 25 per cent most frequently chosen were placed in the next ring; the third quarter in the third ring; and the 25 per cent who received the fewest choices were plotted in the outer ring. Note that in this instance no child in the outer ring was chosen by anyone else. The connecting lines show that each of these six pupils is "reaching out" for friends but no one responded by choosing them as work-, play-, or seat-mates.



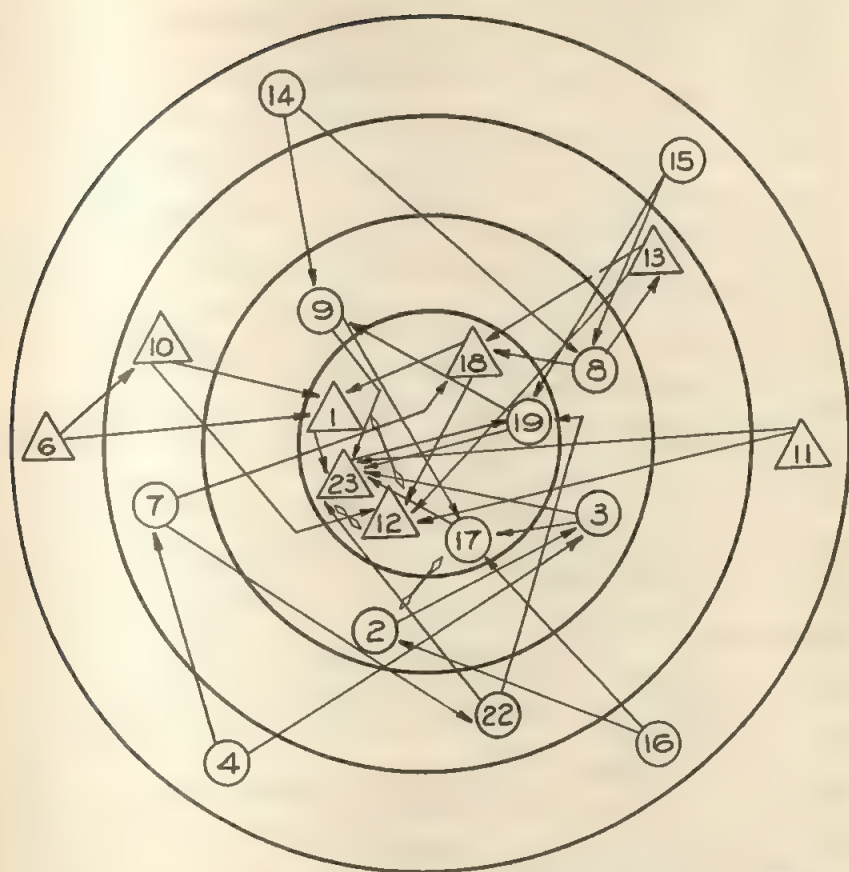


FIG. 15: Sociogram showing relationships within the group and social distance positions. By permission from *Elementary-School Student Teaching*, by Raleigh Schorling and G. Max Wingo, p. 44. Copyright, 1950. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. Redrawn by permission of the publisher.

FACTS ABOUT CLASS GROUPS

Many techniques, including sociometry, have been used to inventory and to study the character, composition, complexity, variations, abilities, interests, and attainments of the membership of class groups at different age and grade levels. Anyone who has taken the trouble to study one or more class groups or the classes in one or more whole school systems knows that no one has ever discovered a procedure whereby classes could be composed of pupils who are alike or nearly alike in all of the traits and factors which are of concern to the school. Parenthetically one might add that such extreme homogeneity would be undesirable for educational purposes in a democracy. Students of children as individuals and in class groups know that almost any class chosen at random in any school system in any part

of the country, regardless of the pupil classification plan used in the school, consists of children who vary in chronological age, height, weight, carpal maturity, strength, mental age, social and emotional maturity, achievement in the various subject fields, and in any other trait or characteristic from about two to five, or even more than five, years. The range in measurable traits is usually smaller in the kindergarten and primary grades than it is in the intermediate and upper grades. In fact, the differences among children in class groups increase (i.e., the range becomes wider) rather consistently as one traces class groups up the age scale. These simple facts about differences among children of the same age or grade comprise *a most important consideration for persons responsible for developing an organization for the grouping of pupils in an elementary school.*

A second group of facts about class groups consists of information about the interpupil relations. It is well known that children seek, yes, crave, companionship and friendship, primarily among their own approximate age mates. Yet the typical class usually has one or more members who are unwanted by the others in that no one considers them as a friend or desirable associate. Children who receive no choices by others are called "isolates." Those who receive only one to three choices in a sociometric test are called "neglectees." Those who in a class of 30 receive 15 or more choices are called "stars." In a typical class approximately 50 per cent of the pupils would receive more than 3 but less than 15 choices. In primary grades the choices are apt to be more widely scattered and fewer pupils tend to be chosen with higher frequency.

The social status of the various individuals in a class tends to be reflected in a variety of interpersonal relations. The unwanted isolates tend to be lone wolves who manifest little concern for or interest in what goes on in school, or they are constantly injecting themselves forcefully into sub-groups in which they are unwelcome, or they are using unsocial or anti-social tactics for achieving recognition and status, or they may manifest any combination of these and other behaviors in their search for social participation and acceptance. Each class usually has one or more small sub-groups consisting of a few pupils. When the sub-group consists of only two pupils it is called "a pair"; when the members of a sub-group have no interaction with those who are not in the sub-group, the sub-group is sometimes called "an island." Sometimes the preferred relationships are in the nature of a chain in which Child A chooses Child B, who in turn prefers Child C, who in turn chooses Child D, and so forth. In no instance do the members of a chain reflect reciprocal choices. Examples of most of these types of social relationships can be found in Figures 13, 14, 15, and 16.

A third group of facts known about class groups pertains to "the environment for learning" created by the interpupil relations within the group and the attitudes of the members of the class toward each other, toward the teacher, and toward the school in general. The human relations in the class-

room create a social-psychological climate which has important bearing upon what, if anything, is learned. The isolate who is struggling for recognition and social acceptance has little time or energy for the assignment in arithmetic or reading unless he has chosen to use academic prowess as his weapon, in which case he is using a tool which causes him to withdraw himself still further from social contacts; furthermore, if he does succeed in achieving academic superiority, he has a reward which is not prized very highly by others as an asset in gaining social acceptance among his peers. If the isolate uses fighting, teasing, stealing, or bullying as his weapon for gaining status in the group he is using a tool which probably succeeds only in making him even less wanted by the others.

Friendships which form the basis for sub-groups may have emerged because of common interests, previous acquaintanceship, similar skills in given areas, mutual sympathy, a common goal which may center in school tasks or in anti-social behaviors such as shoplifting, fighting a neighborhood gang, or resisting or maintaining open warfare against the teacher. The cohesive force in a sub-group may not have reached surface consciousness by the children themselves, or it may be a definitely recognized factor. In the latter case the cohesive force may have been the reason why these particular individuals were drawn together. When the cohesive forces or motives of sub-groups deviate noticeably from those which have desired educational value, the total educational impact of school attendance becomes a problem. Frequently each sub-group has one or more "stars" who give it various degrees of leadership.

Some classes do not have sub-groups and in most classes that do have them their motives are not inimical to the purposes of the school. But regardless of the exact structuring that may exist in a given class, how pupils feel toward each other, how they interact with each other, and the extent to which their unsatisfied social needs cause them to strive for recognition and peer status determine in no small degree the amount of interest they will show in the usual school activities and the kind of social learnings which are taking place. Teacher-pupil relations are an inseparable part of the total picture. A sympathetic, understanding teacher can mold and utilize to advantage the social-psychological climate of the situation. A teacher who does not understand children and who is unaware of these social aspects of interpupil relations will probably have many problems of discipline and must in the end resort to extreme dictatorial devices which make school life unhappy for teacher and pupils.

The fourth group of facts about class groups clusters around the teacher's task of developing a class into a good working group and good sub-groups for teaching purposes. There are also the teacher's problems of motivating, managing, and teaching the class. One must recognize from the outset that a class of 30 or more pupils is not necessarily a social unit or a group that can work and live well together. The usual methods for organizing classes

at the beginning of a school term bring together aggregations of individuals with few common denominators. They may or may not be of about the same age and maturity. They usually are from varied socio-economic and home and community backgrounds. Some may have been classmates in previous years. Few will know the teacher and the teacher may or may not know some of them.

Certainly a class at the opening of the school term cannot be said to be a social unit, a working group. Until common purposes, cooperative working procedures, better acquaintanceship with each other and the teacher, and confidence in each other have developed, the class will be merely an aggregation of individuals. To become a group there must be changes in the relationship among the members. Maas points out that "in a developing group there are *slowly changing networks of relationships* among the members; there are *mores or customs* that grow up as the needs of the group and its members become apparent; and there is a *history of developmental phases* through which the group proceeds."¹⁸ These three factors may be considered as the characteristics of a genuine group.

The teacher has the problem of becoming acquainted with and studying the pupils, of helping pupils to become acquainted with each other and to develop the kinds of social relations that will make for satisfying work and play activities, and of helping each child to achieve status within the group through socially approved means. These are complex and difficult tasks for the teacher, but unless at least reasonable success is achieved in these areas the class will not develop into the kind of working group that will make success out of school life. Genuinely purposeful, cooperative teaching-learning situations will be difficult to obtain unless at least a reasonable degree of group-ness is achieved. Teaching and classroom management will be difficult to the degree that the class has not developed into a social group. The extent of the teacher's problem in these regards will depend in no small measure upon the characteristics of and differences among the children assigned to the class and upon the teacher's insight into and skill in handling the group relations. How children are grouped into classes thus has an important bearing upon the social-psychological climate of the classroom and the kinds of learnings that take place.

GUIDEPOSTS FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF GROUPING POLICIES AND PRACTICES

Those responsible for organizing children into class groups do so on the basis of certain educational viewpoints, certain information which they have accumulated, and their past experiences in dealing with the pupil classifica-

¹⁸ Henry S. Maas, "Understanding Group Processes," in *Fostering Mental Health in Our School*, 1950 Yearbook (Washington, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1950), p. 287.

tion problem. Among these considerations is the viewpoint which the school proposes to express with reference to the breadth of its contributions to children. If the school's objective centers primarily upon promoting achievement in the academic fields with little or no concern for children's physical, social, and emotional development, then the objective in grouping can be to assemble into class sections children who are as nearly alike in academic attainments as the circumstances will permit. Teachers' marks in subjects of study and other indices of academic achievement may be used as criteria for class placement. Such a policy and procedure will bring together into class groups aggregations of children who are supposed to be reasonably alike in subject matter attainments but who will differ widely in chronological age and practically all other indices of growth and development. Actually this plan seldom results in classes that have the theoretically assumed degree of homogeneity in academic areas, but such, at least, is its intention. An inescapable by-product, although not necessarily an intention of the plan, is extreme heterogeneity in other measurable indices of maturity. Children with high intelligence quotients and high achievement records may be placed in groups in which the average chronological age is two or more years above their own. Conversely, slow learners and delayed achievers will be placed in classes in which their chronological overage may approximate three to five years. Both the underage, accelerated pupil and the overage, retarded pupil will be in classes in which they find few interests common to themselves and their classmates. Practically all of their developmental needs are out of focus as compared to the majority of their classmates. The noticeably underage or overage pupil usually finds difficulty in establishing proper rapport with his classmates, thus experiencing difficulty in achieving social status and a satisfying role in the group. Frustrations of various kinds and social and emotional maladjustment are not uncommon among such children. Their physical, social, and emotional development needs appear to be ignored under this kind of a grouping plan. Whenever these areas of development are ignored, serious doubts arise about the impact of the school environment upon children's personality, character, and citizenship education.

The preceding considerations imply a corollary which is concerned with the relative importance attached to the different goals sought by the school. If the objectives summarized under the headings of self-realization, human relations, civic responsibility, and economic efficiency are viewed in terms of academic, physical, social, and emotional development of children, most educators would say that all four groups of objectives are equally important and that all four areas of children's development are equally important. If this educational viewpoint is accepted, grouping practices should give full expression to this belief. Children should not be placed in terms of their achievement status if by so doing the child would be confronted with insurmountable obstacles to wholesome social, emotional, personality, and char-

acter development. A 10-year-old who has not yet learned to read should not for that reason be placed in a first grade with 6-year-olds. A 14-year-old with a third-grade achievement record should not be placed in a third or fourth grade. Such placements cannot result in the child's achieving an acceptable adjustment to his classmates or the curricular offering. Whenever such placements are made, it is an open admission that the four groups of objectives or the four areas of children's development are not given equal importance.

Researches have shown repeatedly that the normal unfolding of a child's growth pattern flourishes best in a permissive environment which is rich in learning opportunities and in which the child feels that he belongs, has happy working relationships within the group, and feels that he has respected status and significant roles. "Status" implies the high or low rank assigned by the group to the individual. "Role" implies the function the group assigns to the individual. The way a person thinks about himself, his own sense of personal worth, his emotional security, is in large measure determined by what he thinks other people think of him. It is important for the development of most boys and girls that they find "belonging" in groups of their peers. Unless a child finds "belonging" in his class group he cannot respond profitably and wholesomely to school activities.¹⁹

In what kind of a school group should a child have membership? Most students of the grouping problem would say that a child's school life each year should give him experience in many types and sizes of groups. He should have contact with groups of children older and younger than he is. Some experiences should be in groups having a wide age range. Some time should be spent working alone, some with only one other pupil as a pair, some in the usual class group, and some time in larger assembly-type groups. Even though a school makes provision for each pupil to have all or most of these different types of group experiences, the basic problem still remains, namely, the task of placing each pupil in a class section for administrative purposes and for participation in the major portion of his instructional activities. The question thus resolves itself into "To what kind of a class group should a pupil belong?" The answer is difficult and complex, partially because research has not addressed itself very extensively to the question of pupil classification in the light of modern concepts of education. However, a few general thoughts can be projected. No doubt the objective should be to have each child continuously placed in a class group in which he is wanted and respected by others, feels that he is wanted, has tasks with which he has reasonable chance for success, has some chances to excel in selected phases of the group's activities, has some chances to be excelled,

¹⁹ The author is indebted to Ruth Cunningham and associates for several of the generalizations stated in this paragraph. For further details see their book, *Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951), Ch. 4.

and experiences a normal variety of interplay with the group so that wholesome character, personality, social, and emotional development may take place. In other words, the objective in grouping should be the achievable role and status of the individual in the group to which he is assigned. The criterion in terms of which to appraise the grouping practice in a school is *the individual in relationship to the group*. If the individual cannot amalgamate or integrate himself into the group through his own efforts or with the help of the teacher and classmates, then that is the wrong group for that child.

The statements about grouping made up to this point leave the problem on a somewhat general basis, without specific formulas to be applied by schools in general. Perhaps this is as it should be. If the philosophy of education and child development which has been implied is to be followed in schools, each school must resolve its grouping problems in terms of its own student body. The individual in relationship to the group can be determined only if one knows the individual and the several groups which are potential group placements for him. One generalization that would apply to all schools is that every school should gather regularly on all children such developmental data as are pertinent and useful in implementing and appraising grouping practices. Olson's procedure, as described earlier in this chapter, is one approach that can be recommended. His use of developmental data in making decisions about group placement is illustrated in the case of William whose parents had requested that he be shifted to a first grade group after he had been in the kindergarten for about six weeks. The information is presented in the form of a letter to the parents.²⁰

Dear Mr. and Mrs. James:

Some time ago, I promised to examine our data on William's growth and development to determine whether his general maturity was such as to warrant an extra promotion from the kindergarten to the first grade. I understand that this same general question has been raised informally from time to time with the teacher in charge of the present kindergarten group. In recent years, our teachers have felt increasingly that parent satisfaction with whatever was done with a child was a very important part of the child's ability to live comfortably with himself and with other children. We therefore try to give parents information upon which to base a wise decision, in as complete a form as possible.

A much more complete account has been prepared for William than has hitherto been used and than we could hope to present with the facilities at our disposal for each child at these early ages. I am glad to do this both to answer the practical question you raise about a change for William, and as a test of one way of using our child development research material in the solution of a recurring educational problem. After you have read this account, I should like to have your reaction to three questions: "Have the data been presented in a

²⁰ The narrative, table, and chart are excerpts from Olson's original unpublished presentation of the case. In somewhat modified form the material was later published as an article, "The Parents Request an Extra Promotion," *Childhood Education*, Vol. 18 (1941), pp. 24-28.

manner which is intelligible to you? If not, in what respects would further clarification be desirable? What decision do you believe is best for William?"

The basic data for William's status in growth, obtained at five years and four months of age are presented in Table 11. The functions measured are given in the first column. The raw units in which the data were collected are given in the second column, and corresponding age values are given in the third column. Thus, William weighed 55 pounds at the examination period, and this is typical of that of the average boy at eight years and one month of age. Height is easily understood in a similar manner. In the case of dental age, since no permanent tooth was erupted and the x-ray evidence was not in, we assigned him a dental age of five years and ten months. We know that the dental age is not higher, but we cannot be sure how much lower at the present writing. Strength of grip was measured on a hand dynamometer and the 13 kilograms registered transformed into a grip age of seven years and two months. He made a score of seventy-five on the Metropolitan Test of Reading Readiness. This we have translated into a reading readiness age of six years and two months. The Kuhlman-Binet examination yielded a mental age of six years and three months which is practically identical, allowing for a difference in examination date, with that obtained by Mrs. T. who gave an examination at your request at a slightly earlier period. The behavior in the examination apparently was also quite similar on the two occasions. He was neither timid nor bold in the situation but proceeded to work with good attention, few directions, and without much reliance on approval. He was cooperative throughout and did not seem disturbed as he hit the difficult age levels of the test.

TABLE 11: Cross-Sectional Data for William at Chronological Age Five Years and Four Months

FUNCTION MEASURED	RAW SCORE	AGE EQUIVALENT
Weight	55 lbs.	W.A. 8 years 1 month
Strength of Grip	13 Kgs.	G.A. 7 years 2 months
Mental Age		M.A. 6 years 3 months
Reading Readiness	75	R.R.A. 6 years 2 months
Height	45.5 inches	H.A. 6 years 1 month
Dental Eruption	0	D.A. 5 years 10 months
Organismic Age		O.A. 6 years 6 months
Chronological Age		C.A. 5 years 4 months

We have coined the term "organismic age" to describe a child's center of gravity in general maturity. This is obtained simply by taking an average of available age values. The larger the amount of available data, the more accurate the value obtained. This center of gravity, in the case of William, turns out to be six years and six months, which may be thought of as an average maturity figure to be contrasted with his five years and four months of chronological age. A child with an average maturity at this level usually quickly impresses observers as a mature child for his age. It now remains to interpret this maturity in terms of its significance for William's growth during the next five or six years of the elementary school period and in terms of his relationship to the social group in school with which he will play and work.

In considering the problem of a child in a particular school group, his absolute status is of interest, but it is also important to consider his status as

a member of a group of children who carry on certain activities in common. Our next consideration is his position in the present kindergarten group and his position in the first grade group.

In discussing a child's position in a group, it is convenient to think in terms of a yard stick in which zero is the bottom of the group, fifty is the average, and one hundred is the top of the group. A study of his attributes in these terms enables us to visualize somewhat a child's status as a member of an interacting social group. These positions obviously change as the group is changed. A given child, for example, will usually rank higher in status in a lower than in a higher age group. Similarly, a given child will rank higher in a group that represents a random sample of the population than he will in one which is superior in terms of mental and physical qualities to the average of the population.

In Figure 16, profiles of status in the kindergarten have been contrasted with the change of the status he would undergo if transferred to the first grade. Glancing across the page, we see at once that his status is high in practically all

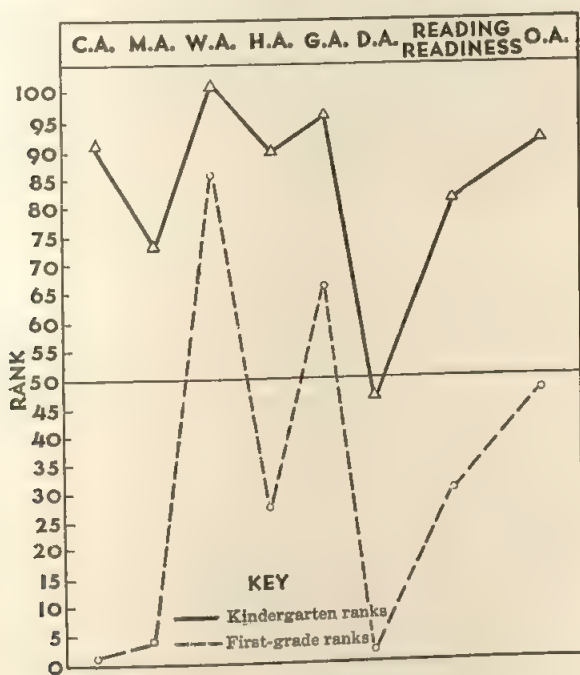


FIG. 16: Percentile ranks of William in kindergarten group as compared with his percentile ranks if moved to the first grade. From an unpublished report by Willard C. Olson.

values in the kindergarten. The possible exception in dental age may not be a real one when better data are obtainable. His status in the kindergarten in each of the measures portrayed may be contrasted with the corresponding status figure if he were to be transferred to the first grade. Instead of being one of the oldest children in the group in the kindergarten (C.A. column), he would drop to the bottom of the first grade group and actually be five months younger than the youngest. Instead of being in the upper thirty percent in mental level (M.A. column), he would drop to the lowest five per cent in the first grade. He would

maintain a superior status in weight (W. A. column), but would drop below the median in height (H. A. column). He would still be above in strength of grip but would drop to the bottom in dentition. While he is at a percentile rank of seventy-seven in reading readiness when compared to other kindergarten children, the same score reduces him to a status of twenty-nine in rank if he were to become a part of a first grade group. In organismic age, he would be exceeded only by eleven in a hundred in the kindergarten but would be exceeded by fifty-two in a hundred in a first grade group.

So far as research has been able to determine, there is no uniform relationship between the future growth of a child, physically or educationally, and the nature of his classification in school. That is, under modern methods of individualization, children have the opportunity to realize their capacity in achievement irrespective of the grade group in which they happen to be classified. The problem seems to be primarily one of happiness and ability to work with a group with whom one may also have comfortable social relations.

With these data before you, we would be happy to have you make the decision as to whether William should remain where he is or whether he should be reclassified. In the kindergarten group, he can easily assume and maintain a position of leadership. He will be in a relatively poor competitive position in the first grade and in future years among the older and more mature children. No doubt, reading would be a struggle for him there for some time yet. If too much pressure were not put on him, however, he could probably live comfortably with children going forward more rapidly.

Sincerely yours,

Additional encouragement for a child development philosophy of grouping can be secured from the findings of research. Achievement in school subjects is a function of the growth of the organism as a whole. If the environment for learning is suitable and generous, growth in academic achievement will proceed normally in accordance with the unfolding of the individual's growth pattern. The curves representing growth in achievement will show such spurts, plateaus, and time lags as are the normal accompaniment of the synchronized growing-up of individuals. Variations in the rate of growth in achievement as appear to be normal manifestations of an individual's growth pattern should not be disturbing to schools or call for special remedial measures. Growth in achievement, just as growth in height and weight, appears to be independent of how children are grouped, provided absurd extremes are avoided. There is common acceptance of the notion that a child's growth in height, weight, dentition, strength of grip, or mental age during a given year would be the same whether he were placed in Grade 3 or Grade 4 or in Section 1 or Section 2 of the sixth grade. Research supports the contention that growth in achievement is likewise unaffected by group placement as long as extremes are avoided and good teaching, including adaptation of instruction to individual differences, prevails.²¹ Jones concluded from her study that children taught on their individual levels regardless of grade placement achieved a greater amount of

²¹ Olson, *Child Development*, *op. cit.*, p. 364.

growth than comparable pupils taught as a group with a prescribed curriculum. This generalization was found to be true for reading, arithmetic, spelling, and total achievement.²²

When the growth philosophy underlies grouping practices, there is direct encouragement to teachers to abandon uniform assignments, uniform requirements, and other practices which tend to standardize and curb the fullest development of individual pupils. Instead, the whole philosophy of the school encourages diversified activities, diversified learnings, extensive provisions for meeting individual needs, and genuine efforts to have each child make the most progress of which he is capable and ready. The kind of teaching implied in this discussion will tend to increase the variability of the pupils. When goals and activities are numerous and varied, teaching will cause children to become less alike. Children who may be nearly alike in a given trait, such as reading ability, at the beginning of the school year will be less alike toward the end of the year or after several years. This is how it should be if individual ability and opportunity are to be given full flow. A school's grouping practices should encourage optimum development of each child rather than create an influence which would make for uniform achievements and thus tend to keep children more nearly alike in the traits whose development are sought by the school. There is no evidence that conformity to averages is a desirable or possible goal of instruction.

HOMOGENEOUS GROUPING²³

So-called "homogeneous" grouping is an attempt to bring together into convenient-sized groups or classes children who are similar in ability, age, industry, previous experience, and other factors which affect learning. To get a clear notion of the meaning of "homogeneous" grouping, one might consider two extremes: complete heterogeneity on one hand and complete homogeneity on the other. Theoretically one might imagine complete heterogeneity as consisting of a class which had one or more pupils from each of the elementary- and high-school grades placed in a large room and taught by the lecture method. Complete homogeneity, on the other hand, could be secured only when every pupil in the group is equal to every other pupil in ability, age, industry, previous experience, and *all* other factors which affect learning. Even with all factors equal, the progress of individuals in the group would be equal only if each of them received identically the same motivation under identical circumstances, and if each were presented with the same materials in equal quantity. Of course such a

²² Daisy M. Jones, "An Experiment in Adaptation to Individual Differences," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 39 (1948), pp. 257-272.

²³ This section and portions of the section on ability grouping are reproduced from the author's contribution to *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, edited by Monroe, *op. cit.*, pp. 376-377.

condition is unattainable in practice. In fact complete homogeneity could be attained only if each student were taught by himself. Between these two extremes lie many degrees of homogeneity in grouping pupils.

Most discussions of grouping ignore the extent to which "homogeneous" grouping has existed in practice. The segregation of pupils into elementary schools and high schools represents an attempt to place together children who presumably can work and progress in conjunction. The separation of children into grades and the further separation into lower and higher sections within a grade represent stages or degrees of "homogeneous" grouping. It seems clear, therefore, that some form or degree of homogeneous grouping is used universally in American schools. It is the synonymous use of the terms *homogeneous grouping* and *ability grouping* which creates confusion.

ABILITY GROUPING

Ability grouping is an extension of grading or a refinement of "homogeneous group" as explained above. It is usually the separation of children of a given age into two or more groups or classes, the members of each group being more alike in a particular ability than the entire group together. Theoretically ability grouping presumes grouping in relation to *ability to attain in a single subject or activity*. As many as 23 different criteria, singly or in various combinations, have been used.

Much of the apparent confusion that exists regarding the bases for ability grouping is the result of the absence of clear-cut notions regarding the philosophical and psychological concepts underlying the principle of ability grouping, the purposes to be achieved by it, and the curriculum and method problems associated with it. Thoroughgoing summaries of research and differences in philosophical viewpoints are available and should be examined by the interested reader.²⁴ Generally speaking, sociologists and those who are ardent supporters of the experimental philosophy of education are opposed to ability grouping on theoretical grounds.

One of the chief problems in finding *the* criterion or the best criteria for ability grouping has been the question of predicting achievement and success in school. In the past the dominating aim of ability grouping has been to improve the learning situation by bringing together pupils who will be alike in achievement at the end of a period of learning. Prediction on this basis is complicated by such factors as motivation, industry, perseverance, past experience, ambition, ability, and achievement, as well as cur-

²⁴ H. J. Otto, *Elementary School Organization and Administration* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1934), pp. 167-185; Chapin and Conway, *op. cit.*; R. O. Billett, *Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking, and Promotion*, Monograph No. 13 of the National Survey of Secondary Education, U. S. Office of Education, Education Bulletin 17 (1932).

riculum and teaching method. If one assumes that the aim of ability grouping is developmental in nature, that is, to bring together pupils who will be able to work together and to progress together under conditions permitting the fullest possible development of the individuals involved, then one is less concerned with prediction and more with developmental aspects. Under the latter concept of grouping the school must assume responsibility for such factors as motivation and discrepancies between the child's ability to learn and his actual learnings.

Although considerable research has been done on the question of bases for ability grouping, it is little wonder that under the circumstances no significant unanimity of findings has been reported. Some suggest that, if the purpose is merely prediction, the best procedure would include the best measure of mental ability available and the best index of past achievement as bases for grouping. If, on the other hand, the developmental function of ability grouping is adopted, the criterion for grouping might well consist of a single measure, namely, the best index of mental ability available.

Experimental studies of ability grouping have been fraught with such difficulties relating to the many variables to be controlled and the diffused concepts about grouping that it can hardly be said that ability grouping has been evaluated experimentally. Each of the many studies that have been made has aided in casting further light on the problem and in raising new issues which formerly had received scant attention. In the light of present thinking about the question of ability grouping, many of the experimental studies seem very inadequate. Summaries of the existing studies have set forth the following conclusions:

1. The evidence slightly favors ability grouping as contrasted with heterogeneous grouping, particularly where adaptations of standards, materials, and methods are made.
2. The evidence regarding the attitude of teachers toward ability grouping is that most teachers prefer to work with "homogeneous" rather than mixed groups.
3. The evidence regarding the relative merits of various types of adaptation of standards, materials, and methods is inadequate for forming a judgment.
4. The evidence indicates greatest relative effectiveness for dull children, next greatest for average children, and least (frequently harmful) for bright children.
5. The evidence regarding the particular grade levels or subjects in which ability grouping is particularly effective is inadequate to form a judgment.
6. The evidence regarding the effect of ability grouping upon factors other than knowledge and skills is highly subjective and cannot be said to

be conclusive, although one study shows that the great majority of pupils are happy and satisfied in schools using ability grouping.

7. On the whole, where grouping is used, parents are favorable to its use; the majority of parents believe that children are at least as happy, do better work in school, and are correctly sectioned according to ability.

8. The indications are that in general the variability in achievement (which is an index of difficulty of teaching and the need for instructional adjustments) in ability groups, in grades which have three groups each, is about 83 per cent as great as in unselected groups. In grades having two groups each, the variability in achievement in ability groups is about 93 per cent as great as in unselected groups. These percentages are reduced to about 74 and 84, respectively, if the plan of ability grouping is accompanied by a multiple track of promotion.

The present status of ability grouping may be summarized as follows: (a) Detroit was one of the large cities that introduced ability grouping as early as 1919; since that date Detroit has experimented with several variations of the idea;²⁵ (b) the fetish about ability grouping which prevailed in educational circles between 1920 and 1935 has subsided; (c) no research studies on ability grouping have been reported for the past 15 years; (d) the interest of teachers and administrators has changed from the rather narrow issues involved in ability grouping to broader concerns for well-rounded development in which emotional, social, character, and personality development receive as much attention as scholastic development; and (e) in 1948, 53 per cent of 1598 city school systems were using the much debated practice of ability grouping in one or more schools; the percentage of cities using ability grouping ranged from 72 in cities of over 100,000 population to 44 in cities of 2500 to 4999 in population.²⁶ The latter report did not indicate whether ability grouping in these cities was used in elementary or secondary grades or in what proportion of its schools it was used in each of the reporting cities.

The majority of elementary schools in this country are too small—that is, there are too few pupils in each grade—to make efforts at ability grouping worth while. Even in large cities in which many of the elementary schools have an enrollment of 600 or more pupils, the presence of semi-annual promotions causes each of the half-grade sections to be too small to justify the administrative detail involved in forming ability groups. Those who prefer ability grouping may get helpful suggestions from the school systems which have applied ability grouping for many years and have experimented at length with different ways of administering this method of

²⁵ P. T. Rankin, C. T. Anderson, and W. G. Bergman, "Ability Grouping in the Detroit Individualization Experiment," in *The Grouping of Pupils, Thirty-fifth Year-book, Part I*, National Society for the Study of Education (1936), Ch. 4.

²⁶ "Trends in City-School Organization, 1938 to 1948," *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 27, No. 1 (February, 1949), p. 17.

pupil classification. Turney, who has been a student of ability grouping for many years and has been an ardent supporter of the practice, recommends that ability grouping be made on the basis of mental age and IQ. A description of this method of grouping as applied at Lawrence, Kansas, as well as the method used in Philadelphia, another large city in which ability grouping in the elementary schools has been used for a long time, are given in the reference quoted below.²⁷ Interested readers are urged to consult the detailed descriptions in the source listed.

CLASS SIZE AND TEACHER-PUPIL RATIO

Class size and teacher-pupil ratio are two different concepts and each should be used with distinctive meaning. Class size means the number of pupils in membership in a class. Average size of class means the average number of pupils in membership in all the classes in a school, school system, state, region or in the nation. Teacher-pupil ratio means the number of pupils in membership per full-time teacher. For example, if a school has 315 pupils, 10 full-time teachers, and 10 classes, the average size of class is 31.5. The teacher-pupil ratio in this school is also 31.5. However, if the same school also had a half-time music teacher in addition to the 10 regular teachers, the teacher-pupil ratio would be 30, whereas average class size would remain at 31.5. The fact that many elementary schools have principals who teach part-time or they have one or more special teachers (music, art, physical education, library) who do not have responsibility for regular homeroom sections results in teacher-pupil ratios being lower than average size of class. Teachers usually look upon size of class as an index of the teaching load. School budgets, however, are frequently calculated on the basis of teacher-pupil ratio. The programs in modern elementary schools demand more teacher personnel than the conventional one-teacher per class so that teacher-pupil ratio should be recognized as necessarily lower than average size of class. Such recognition is frequently overlooked by school boards and the public. The latter groups are prone to look at teacher-pupil ratio and to rest comfortably if teacher-pupil ratio does not go above 30 to 1 or 35 to 1. Such high teacher-pupil ratios would result in class size averages of 32 to 40, depending upon how adequately staffed the elementary schools would be. Both concepts of class size and teacher-pupil ratio should be utilized in planning for the instructional organization.

Current practice reveals much diversity regarding the size of elementary-school classes. Table 12 shows the distribution of elementary-school classes by size in cities in two population groups. Some of the school systems which have some classes of 60 or more pupils assign two teachers to each. The

²⁷ Chapin and Conway, *op. cit.*

trend during the 1940's has been toward smaller classes in elementary schools. This trend is supported by the following facts:

	CITIES OVER 100,000 IN POPULATION		CITIES 30,000 TO 100,000 IN POPULATION	
	1940-1941	1949-1950	1940-1941	1949-1950
Median size of class	34.3	32.5	31.8	30.0
Per cent of classes with 30 to 39 pupils	53.6	66.2	50.0	48.2
Per cent of classes with less than 30 pupils	14.8	22.7	38.1	45.0

Whether this downward trend in class size in elementary schools can be maintained during the 1950's is problematical. The growing elementary-school enrollments, the teacher shortage, and the shortage of classrooms may force increases in class size. Many school systems are using half-day sessions and other adjustments to maintain the gains that have been made in reducing class size in their elementary schools.

Anyone who has had direct contact with the practical problems of school administration knows that it is impossible to have the identical or ideal number of pupils in each class in a given school or school system. Numerous factors operate in local situations and cause variations in the number of pupils of any one age or grade level. No doubt these variations explain in part the number of small as well as some of the very large classes shown in Table 12. Class size in a local school system is usually the result of adjusting to local circumstances the viewpoints on class size held by local leaders. The convictions on class size in elementary schools of 1352 school superintendents were reported in 1949.²⁸ Only 10 per cent of them recommended more than 34 as the desired average size of class for elementary schools and only 10 per cent recommended less than 25; 45 per cent recommended 25 to 29, and 34 per cent indicated 30 to 34 as the preferred number. Policies of school systems regarding minimum and maximum size of class are shown in Table 13. Except for the kindergarten, there is a reduction in the minimum and the maximum sizes for most of the grades in both groups of cities. Data on teacher-pupil ratios have been published regularly in the *Biennial Surveys of Education*. The ratio for each year is obtained by dividing the total number of pupils by the total number of teachers, thus combining enrollments and teachers for elementary and secondary schools. In 1947-1948 this ratio was 27.8 to 1 on the basis of enrollment and 24.3

²⁸ "Trends in City-School Organization, 1938 to 1948," *op. cit.*, p. 36.

to 1 on the basis of average daily attendance. Teacher-pupil ratios figured in this manner are not very helpful. There is need for careful research which will portray teacher-pupil ratios by school divisions, the relationship between teacher-pupil ratio and average size of class, and the ways in which these two concepts are used in budget making and in planning the instructional organization for a school.

TABLE 12: Distribution of Elementary-School Classes by Size in Two Population Groups *

SIZE OF CLASS	CITIES OVER 100,000 IN POPULATION				CITIES 30,000 TO 100,000 IN POPULATION			
	1940-1941 (58 Cities)		1949-1950 (77 Cities)		1940-1941 (139 Cities)		1949-1950 (179 Cities)	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
90 up	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	†
85-89	—	—	—	—	1	†	4	†
80-84	1	†	—	—	2	†	6	†
75-79	4	†	—	—	3	†	8	†
70-74	12	†	3	†	12	†	10	†
65-69	34	0.1	2	†	23	0.1	16	0.1
60-64	69	0.2	8	†	25	0.1	42	0.1
55-59	179	0.4	39	†	46	0.2	56	0.2
50-54	428	0.9	133	0.2	125	0.7	123	0.4
45-49	3,622	8.0	1,456	1.9	460	2.5	279	1.0
40-44	10,097	22.0	7,100	9.2	1,570	8.3	1,395	4.9
35-39	14,262	31.1	23,365	30.4	3,934	20.9	4,869	17.3
30-34	10,312	22.5	27,444	35.8	5,487	29.1	8,719	30.9
25-29	4,507	9.8	12,734	16.8	4,427	23.5	7,936	28.2
20-24	1,631	3.5	3,592	4.7	2,031	10.8	3,658	13.0
15-19	432	0.9	665	0.9	504	2.7	814	2.9
10-14	169	0.4	144	0.2	134	0.7	163	0.6
1-9	77	0.2	59	0.1	74	0.4	80	0.3
Total number of classes reported	45,836	100.0	76,744	100.0	18,858	100.0	28,186	100.0
Median size of class ‡	34.3 pupils		32.5 pupils		31.8 pupils		30.0 pupils	

* Reproduced from Educational Research Service, A.A.S.A. and N.E.A., Circulars No. 4 and No. 6 (1950).

† Less than 0.1 per cent.

‡ The medians reported are city medians rather than computed medians based on the frequency distribution.

Bringing about a reasonable equality of teaching load in elementary, junior, and senior high schools has been a perennial problem. It is particularly acute in small school systems in which the high-school offering de-

mands an undue proportion of teachers in terms of class size and the total number of pupils enrolled. If a four-year or senior high school makes reasonable effort to serve the diversified educational needs of its students, it is impossible to escape some classes with small enrollments. If as many as one-fourth of the classes are small, the effect on average size of class and teacher-pupil ratio is very noticeable. On the basis of national averages (Table 14) the situation appears to be rather wholesome, but national averages hide the discrepancies that exist in many school systems, especially the smaller ones. In a small school system it is not uncommon for each teacher in the elementary grades to have 45 pupils to be taught all day long without a free period for the teacher, while secondary teachers teach six periods out of seven and have classes that range in size from 5 to 7 to 20 or 30 pupils. Although the most serious problem of equalizing average class size, teacher-pupil ratio, and teaching load is found in small school systems, some large school systems are also affected. One should not expect average size of class to be the same in elementary as in senior high school, but one might anticipate teacher-pupil ratios to be more nearly alike than they are now.

TABLE 13: Policies Regarding Minimum and Maximum Size of Class in Elementary Schools, Showing Median Minimum and Median Maximum Number Per Class *

CLASSES	CITIES OVER 100,000 IN POPULATION				CITIES 30,000 TO 100,000 IN POPULATION			
	1940-1941		1949-1950		1940-1941		1949-1950	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
Kindergarten	20.0	32.5	20.0	35.0	20.0	35.0	20.0	30.0
Grade 1	24.0	35.0	25.0	35.0	25.0	35.0	20.0	30.0
Grade 2	30.0	35.0	25.0	35.0	25.0	35.0	20.0	32.0
Grade 3	30.0	38.0	25.0	35.0	25.0	35.0	24.0	34.0
Grade 4	30.0	39.0	25.0	35.0	28.0	38.0	24.5	35.0
Grade 5	30.0	40.0	25.0	35.0	28.0	38.0	25.0	35.0
Grade 6	30.0	40.0	25.0	35.0	29.0	39.0	25.0	35.0
Grade 7	30.0	38.0	25.0	35.0	27.0	40.0	25.0	35.0
Grade 8	30.0	36.0	25.0	35.0	25.0	36.0	25.0	35.0
Atypical Classes	15.0	22.0	10.0	20.0	10.0	20.0	10.0	18.0

* Reproduced from Educational Research Service, A.A.S.A. and N.E.A., Circulars No. 4 and No. 6 (1950).

Decisions about class size in the elementary school should be made on the basis of many considerations. Young children require more teacher guidance and individual attention than do older children. Classes in kindergarten, first and second grades should be smaller than classes in upper

grades and high school if it is necessary to have other than small classes at any level. Good elementary schools strive for small classes so that (a) the teacher has more time to spend with each child; (b) classrooms are not crowded; (c) children have more freedom to move around the room; (d) children are under less emotional strain; and (e) children have more opportunity to learn to work in groups.²⁹ For the parent it is a question of "How much of the teacher's time does your child have? 1/20th? 1/25th? 1/35th? or 1/40th?"

TABLE 14: Median Size of Class by School Division, Five Population Groups, 1949-1950 *

SCHOOL LEVEL	CITIES OVER 500,000 (12 SCHOOL SYSTEMS)	CITIES 100,000 TO 500,000 (65 SCHOOL SYSTEMS)	CITIES 30,000 TO 100,000 (185 SCHOOL SYSTEMS)	CITIES 10,000 TO 30,000 (393 SCHOOL SYSTEMS)	CITIES 5,000 TO 10,000 (373 SCHOOL SYSTEMS)
Elementary schools:					
Kindergartens	31.7	28.4	27.3	25.8	25.0
Elementary grades	36.3	32.2	30.0	29.2	30.5
Atypical classes	16.0	15.0	13.8	14.2	†
Total elementary classes	35.3	31.8	29.7	28.8	30.0
Junior high school—all subjects	33.0	30.7	28.7	29.4	29.1
Senior high school—all subjects	30.5	27.6	27.1	25.9	25.2

* Reproduced from *Educational Research Service*, A.A.S.A. and N.E.A., Circular No. 8 (1950), p. 5.

† So few atypical classes were reported by school systems in this population that no total median was calculated.

Interpersonal relationships in the classroom are another consideration. If learning activities are to provide democratic practices with much interacting among pupils, considerable flexibility, and many social learnings, the size of the group is an important factor. The general formula for the number of possible paired relationships is:

$$X = \frac{y^2 - y}{2}$$

X = number of paired relationships.

y = number of persons in the group.

In a class of 25 pupils there will be a possibility of 300 paired relationships. Adding five more pupils to make a class of 30 produces 135 additional possibilities of pairs for a total of 435. As one contemplates other possible relationships by three's, four's, and so forth, one becomes even more impressed with the geometric character of increase in interpersonal relations as class size increases.³⁰ Size of class also affects the amount of participation that may be accorded to the individual member. Dawe studied pupil par-

²⁹ *Good Schools for Children*, Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, *op. cit.*, p. 13.

³⁰ J. H. S. Bossard, "The Law of Family Interaction," *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 50 (1945), pp. 292-294.

ticipation in 10-minute discussion periods in kindergarten classes ranging in size from 14 to 46 children. The average number of remarks per child was nearly 7 in a class of 14 but dropped to about 1.3 in the class with 46 pupils.³¹

Research studies relating to class size are summarized in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*.³² The results of investigations on practically every phase of class size reveal wide disagreements in the findings. This is true partly because of variation in the experimental setup but mainly because of failure on the part of the experimenter to recognize adequately or to control factors other than class size which have an important influence on the results. Hence it is evident that few of the problems attacked have been conclusively solved. However, certain conclusions appear to be justified:

1. There is great variation in actual class sizes both within and between subjects, schools, school systems, and school levels. While some of this variation seems unavoidable, much is unnecessary and probably undesirable.

2. On the basis of criteria used in the experimental studies published to date and under typical group teaching procedures, mere size of class has little significant influence on educational efficiency as measured by achievement in the academic subjects.

3. Although experimental evidence does not provide a clear-cut answer to the class-size issue, the general trend of the evidence places the burden of proof squarely upon the proponents of small classes.

4. At the elementary-school level the evidence from research indicates that small classes are to be preferred over large classes.

Class-size research to date has dealt with the following pupil factors: achievement and variability in achievement in the subject fields measurable by standardized tests, attention, discipline, self-reliance, attitudes, individual participation, and work habits. No one of these pupil factors has been measured adequately under sufficiently controlled and sufficiently extensive studies to provide a sound base for decisions on class size. Certain additional pupil factors should be considered: (a) the ways in which class size influences the degree to which the teacher can individualize instruction so that each child may have instruction properly adapted to his existing growth and development status and be helped to move forward from that point, the extent to which children's specific obstacles to learning can be identified and removed, and the degree of teacher familiarity with each child so that social, emotional, and character development may be guided; (b) pupil progress toward the objectives of human relationships, civic responsibility, and vocational efficiency as well as achievement in the subject fields; (c) the extent to which large and small classes provide pupils with a variety of

³¹ Helen C. Dawe, "The Influence of Size of Kindergarten Class upon Performance," *Child Development*, Vol. 5 (1934), pp. 295-303.

³² *Op. cit.*, pp. 212-216.

activities and a variety of roles so that opportunities for well-rounded development may be assured.

Research has barely touched the instructional aspect of class size. As long as rather conventional, routinized group procedures are used in teaching it is not likely that research will show whether large or small classes are to be preferred. Modern emphases in instruction call for unit organization of teaching-learning situations, cooperative teacher-pupil planning, pupil purposing, a variety of pupil activities, excursions, rich and varied instructional resources, and thoroughgoing child-study procedures and cumulative records. To what extent can these kinds of things find expression in large and in small classes? Modern procedures in teaching are definitely associated with broadened goals of education and a broad concern for well-rounded growth and development in children so that class-size research should not segregate instruction from pupil factors in making appraisals.³³

FIRST-GRADE ENTRANCE AND GROUPING PROBLEMS

Most elementary schools encounter special grouping problems in the first grade growing out of variations or inappropriate policies regarding age of admission to kindergarten or first grade and the normal variation of beginners in maturity and readiness for regular first grade work. Studies have shown that in a typical first-grade class of 35 pupils mental ages will range from four years six months to eight years six months. Fully a fifth of the class will have mental ages of less than six years at the time they enter school in the fall.³⁴ One study made in St. Louis showed more than a third of the 4000 pupils tested as unready for systematic reading instruction at the outset of the school term.³⁵ From their study of school provisions for beginners in California, Russell and Hill concluded that about 30 per cent of the children needed to be in smaller classes and required more individual attention if they were to achieve satisfactory growth in the first grade.³⁶ Although success in beginning reading depends on the traits and abilities of the individual pupil and the methods of instruction used, there is considerable evidence to show that under present conditions of large classes most children with mental ages under six years experience difficulty in learning to read.³⁷ Data presented in Chapter 2 show that in 1947, 53.4 per cent of

³³ The last three paragraphs were reproduced from the author's contribution to the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, op. cit., p. 215.

³⁴ Gertrude Hildreth, *Readiness for School Beginners* (Yonkers, N. Y., World Book Co., 1950), p. 19.

³⁵ William Kottmeyer and others, "Reading Readiness in the St. Louis Public Schools," *The St. Louis Schools Journal*, Vol. 1 (April, 1946), pp. 3-26.

³⁶ David Russell and Ruby L. Hill, "Provisions for Immature Five-and Six-Year-Olds in California Schools," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, Vol. 16 (May, 1948), pp. 210-233.

³⁷ *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, op. cit., pp. 987-989.

five-year-olds were in school (public and nonpublic) and that kindergartens were operated in only 59 per cent of city school systems. It seems apparent that many of these five-year-olds were in first grade, thus augmenting the number of immature pupils in first grade.

The special grouping problems in the first grade resolve themselves into four major parts. One of them consists of the conflict between a fixed first-grade curriculum and the variability in children's development. Historically, whether wise or unwise, there have developed two practices which are in partial contradiction with each other. One of these is the commonly accepted notion that when a child reaches age six he ought to be in the first grade. First-grade admission policies have reflected and crystallized this concept. The other practice that has become firmly established is that in the first-grade children should be taught beginning reading. This concept, too, has become so well established in the public mind that in only rare exceptions would a public school venture to deviate from it. A volume of criticism would arise from parents if a school should decide to delay beginning reading instruction until Grade 2 or 3. Perhaps the reason most schools are able to maintain reading readiness programs is because parents think it is an integral part of newer methods of teaching reading in the first grade.

The conflict between these two practices grows out of the fact that most five-year-olds that get into first grades and many six-year-olds are not ready to attack beginning reading successfully. There is no royal solution to this dilemma. Each school system must use a variety of approaches suitable to its situation. Modification and improvement of admission policies are possibilities in some communities. Although research data are not available on this point, it seems likely that parent pressure to get children under six years of age into first grade would be less in communities that maintain public school kindergartens. Parents may not admit it, but it is likely that their major concern is to get the youngster into school and that placement in kindergarten or first grade is a secondary issue. Some schools are making much progress in relieving the conflict through parent education. First-grade teachers are using a variety of procedures for helping parents to understand child development, readiness-for-learning concepts, and modern procedures for adapting instruction to individual differences. Other schools are using one or more of the devices discussed in the succeeding paragraphs.

The increase in the complexity of the teaching task caused by admission policies comprises the second major part of the problem. Children are born in about equal numbers during each month of the year. School systems that admit beginners in September and in February and maintain semiannual promotions do not feel the pressure as much as schools which admit beginners only in September. The arguments in favor of annual admission and annual promotion are sufficient to justify their continuance, so that it would be unwise to think of shifting to semiannual promotions as a means of solv-

ing the first-grade grouping problem. The first-grade admission and grouping problems should be resolved by other means.

First-grade admission practices have encountered further complications in recent years due to increased enrollments, overcrowded classes, and shortage of classrooms. Many school systems which formerly admitted underage pupils have been forced to abandon this privilege. In states in which the legal entrance age is six years by the opening of the fall term or in which no state aid is given for children under six, some school systems have been forced to restrict admission to those who had become six years of age by September 1st. Wherever children under six years of age can be admitted, some helpful suggestions in determining policy may be obtained from the following plans developed by Hildreth: ³⁸

PLAN	MINIMUM AGE	MEDIAN AGE	MAXIMUM AGE	MINIMUM BIRTH DATE
I.....	5-7	6-0.5	6-6	6-0 by Feb. 1
II.....	5-8	6-1.5	6-7	6-0 by Jan. 1
III.....	5-9	6-2.5	6-8	6-0 by Dec. 1
IV.....	5-10	6-3.5	6-9	6-0 by Nov. 1
V.....	5-11	6-4.5	6-10	6-0 by Oct. 1
VI.....	6-0	6-5.5	6-11	6-0 by Sept. 1

Hildreth pointed out that Plan III would seem to be the best. Plan VI results in bringing into the first grade a certain proportion of pupils who seem to be too old for the first grade. It also results in an excessive amount of complaint from parents and much demand upon private schools to take underage pupils and to prepare them for second-grade work the next year. Regardless of what age criterion is used, most first grades will have pupils who range nearly two years or more in chronological age, since some pupils, due to illness or parent decision, do not enter until they are seven years old or over. There seems to be no one plan that would meet universal acceptance. Although local autonomy in these matters should be cherished, one must not overlook the fact that on this particular problem of school administration the local administrator would be assisted by a state-wide policy.

The development of public-school kindergartens would probably relieve the tension on this issue in many communities. Wherever public-school kindergartens cannot be maintained there is tremendous pressure put upon private and parochial schools to administer the regular first-grade curriculum to children who are too young to qualify for admission to the first grade in the public schools. Unfortunately some private schools are very ready to ignore all that has been learned about the education of young children and to attempt whatever those who pay the tuition demand. Many children to whom this happens develop very faulty reading and other habits, thus creat-

³⁸ Gertrude Hildreth, "Age Standards for First Grade Entrance," *Childhood Education*, Vol. 23 (September, 1946), pp. 22-27.

ing difficult teaching problems when they transfer a year later to a second grade in some other school. The seriousness of this problem has led some school systems to decree that admission to the second grade is restricted to those who have reached a given chronological age which is just one year more than the age required for admission to the first grade, with a similar stipulation for admission to the third grade, unless placement in either of these grades is recommended by an accredited school.

The third phase of this problem pertains to maturity grouping. If the enrollment in the first grade is large enough so that two or more sections must be organized, there is the possibility of placing the most mature pupils in one class and the least mature in the other class, or to divide them into three or more groups according to maturity. Some authorities recommend this practice. At present there is no research evidence to give adequate guidance regarding the wisdom of the idea. In essence it is a form of ability grouping and thus would encounter the problems usually associated with ability grouping. Some school systems have met the problem by establishing kindergarten-extension, preprimary, or vestibule classes. The administrative and public relations problems which such classes create are insurmountable in some communities. Other communities have been successful in admitting the underage pupils on the basis of intelligence and readiness tests. Brookline, Massachusetts, has been admitting underage pupils by test since 1932. Children who are 4 years 9 months by October 1st are admitted regularly to the kindergarten and those who are 5 years 9 months by October 1st are admitted regularly to the first grade. Children within nine months of these ages are admitted to kindergarten if they have a mental age of 5 years 2 months as determined by the Child Placement Department. Hobson's evaluation of Brookline's 10-year experience with the plan showed that under-age pupils so admitted made satisfactory progress and adjustment.³⁹

The fourth phase of the first-grade grouping problem consists of plans for forming sub-groups within classes to facilitate adaptation of instruction to individual differences. Forming groups within classes has become almost universal practice with first-grade teachers and constitutes a practical method of dealing with the problem that is accessible to every school. It is not likely that any scheme for first-grade admission will succeed in bringing together pupils sufficiently homogeneous so that the tool subjects can be taught effectively by dealing with the class as one unit. There are also many additional reasons for working with young children in smaller groups. There are many school activities other than reading and arithmetic in which small groups can work better than the whole class as one unit. Some school systems have found considerable added opportunity for meeting individual differences by establishing ungraded primary units. These will be discussed at some length in the next chapter.

³⁹ James R. Hobson, "Mental Age As a Workable Criterion for School Admission," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 48 (February, 1948), pp. 312-321.

GROUPING NON-ENGLISH-SPEAKING PUPILS

In most large cities and in most school systems in some states there are large numbers of pupils who come to school not knowing the English language. They are the children who have been reared in homes in which some foreign language, such as Italian, Czech, German, Greek, or Spanish, is the home-language. Their language development in the home-language may be as great as that of children reared in an English-speaking home but they are sufficiently unfamiliar with English so that they cannot understand the English used in school. New York City, for example, has had a recent influx of Puerto Ricans. In 1940 there were about 61,000 Puerto Ricans in the city. By 1952 the number had grown to about 300,000, over 60,000 of whom were attending the public schools. The home-language of these students is Spanish. The problem associated with non-English-speaking pupils is probably most extensive in Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, California, and other states in which there are large numbers of Spanish-speaking families. In Texas there are native Spanish-speaking school children in 238 of the 254 counties in the state. The per cent of Spanish-name scholastics ranges from 95.18 in Zapata County to 0.0 in Swisher County. In cities like El Paso and San Antonio the percentage of Spanish-name scholastics reaches 68.2 and 58.6, respectively.⁴⁰ Estimates made before 1940 showed the Spanish-speaking population to number 121,960 in Arizona, 681,270 in California, and 211,659 in New Mexico.

Non-English-speaking pupils create special grouping problems at two points. There are the non-English-speaking beginners in kindergarten or first grade and older children who do not enter school until age 8, 9, 10, or 12 and have not yet learned to speak English and usually have not learned to read in English or their home-language. In some schools all pupils who have not learned to read are placed in the first grade. Such a policy results in having these older non-English-speaking children or non-readers placed in the first grade with six-year-olds. Research is comparatively silent on what is the best method of handling these older pupils, but the previous discussion in this chapter would suggest that they should be grouped with age and maturity mates as nearly as possible. These older children probably will learn English faster if participating with age mates in activities of interest to them. Learning English, learning to read, and other academic attainments will probably come about faster in an environment in which social learning opportunities are appropriate to their age and maturity.

Grouping non-English-speaking first graders is a more controversial but no less acute problem than the placement of older pupils who have not learned to read or to speak English. Will those who do not know English

⁴⁰ Wilson Little, *Spanish-Speaking Children in Texas* (Austin, University of Texas Press, 1944).

learn it faster if mingled with children who speak it fluently or will they learn it faster if grouped by themselves? Will the progress of those who speak English fluently be retarded if their classes contain noticeable percentages of pupils who cannot speak or understand English? Since research gives few clear-cut answers to this issue, school practices have been decided largely in terms of the attitudes prevailing in local communities. The practice of segregating non-English-speaking Spanish-name children into separate first grade or first- and second-grade classes, and of segregating all Spanish-name children into separate schools has been widespread. Increasingly, however, the Spanish-name people objected to the segregation practices. The issue was finally brought before the courts in California in 1946 and in Texas in 1948.⁴¹

The *Mendez* case was tried before Judge Paul J. McCormick in a United States District Court in southern California. The suit was based on the complaint of a group of Spanish-name children (represented by their parents or guardians) against several school systems that segregated them in separate schools from those attended by other (mostly English-speaking) children. The complaint, grounded upon the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States, alleged a concerted policy and design of class discrimination against "persons of Mexican or Latin descent or extraction" of elementary-school age, resulting in the denial of equal protection of the laws. The court ruled in favor of those making the complaint and ordered the discontinuance of discriminatory practices. Part of Judge McCormick's statement in the case reads as follows:⁴²

The evidence clearly shows that Spanish-speaking children are retarded in learning English by lack of exposure to its use because of segregation, and that commingling of the entire student body instills and develops a common cultural attitude among the school children which is imperative for the perpetuation of American institutions and ideals. It is also established by the record that the methods of segregation prevalent in the defendant school districts foster antagonisms in the children and suggest inferiority among them where none exists.

In the *Delgado* case, children of Mexican descent in four communities in central Texas charged that school authorities were segregating them contrary to law. The suit was tried before Judge Ben H. Rice, Jr., in the United States District Court, Western District of Texas. The complaint and the court decision were similar to those in the *Mendez* case, except for one point. In the *Delgado* case the court recognized a possible exception to the prohibition against segregation. This possible exception was the first grade for children who did not know English. It limited this exception, however, by ruling that school authorities could provide and maintain⁴³

⁴¹ George I. Sanchez, *Concerning Segregation of Spanish-Speaking Children in the Public Schools* (Austin, University of Texas Press, 1951).

⁴² *Ibid.*, p. 11.

⁴³ *Ibid.*, p. 14.

... separate classes on the same campus for the first grade only, and solely for instructional purposes, for pupils in their initial scholastic year who, at the beginning of their initial scholastic year in the first grade, or who have not accumulated attendance substantially equivalent to a scholastic year, clearly demonstrate, as a result of scientific and standardized tests, equally given and applied to all pupils, that they do not possess a sufficient familiarity with the English language to understand substantially classroom instruction in first-grade subject matters.

The latter ruling by the court caused the Texas Education Agency and the State Board of Education to prepare a statement of policy and suggestions to local school systems for complying with the law. The court action in Texas prohibiting segregation of Spanish-name pupils in the public schools, except in the first grade, should not be confused with Texas law which requires separate schools for Negro pupils. Spanish-name children are classified by law as "white scholastics" and the court action in the *Delgado* case merely prohibits segregation of one "white" group from another.

Laws and court decisions may help to clarify or define general administrative practices, but one can hardly expect legal action to solve very many educational problems. The basic instructional and grouping problems associated with non-English-speaking pupils are still largely unsolved. Helpful suggestions can be obtained from recent books,⁴⁴ but it is not likely that the many issues inherent in this problem will be resolved until comprehensive research has been done.

GROUPING WITHIN CLASSES

Grouping children within classes into smaller sub-groups for instructional purposes has become rather widespread in elementary schools. The practice started primarily as a device for adapting instruction to individual differences and is still used extensively for that purpose. Elementary-school workers are familiar with reading groups, especially in the primary grades. Many teachers at all grade levels organize their pupils into three or more groups in arithmetic, each group working with materials and processes suited to its needs and level of development in arithmetic. In spelling, pupils are grouped in pairs, dictating words to each other or checking each other's work. Other kinds of small groups are organized in the same or other subjects as a means of assisting each child to work at his maturity level.

Recent years have brought forth new educational values in the use of sub-groups within classes. Strickland emphasized the importance of arranging classroom furniture so that there are various kinds of activity centers in which children gather in clusters according to interest or topic to be discussed. Informal, circular arrangements are sought where children have a

⁴⁴ L. S. Tireman, *Teaching Spanish-Speaking Children* (Albuquerque, University of New Mexico Press, 1948).

maximum of face-to-face relationships in which there can be much conversation with each other. Such informal groupings are valuable for language development.⁴⁵ Hildreth points out that the individual's highest level of thinking and his ability to make successful adjustments to other persons are achieved through social interaction.⁴⁶ Social participation in small group activities helps children to learn the value of orderly procedure, taking turns, working with a leader, and contributing a share to a common cause. Michaelis, in describing functional grouping in the social studies, says that small groups may be used during such activities as making a mural, writing script for a play, writing letters, making a wall map, or doing research on a given topic. Small groups of this type provide many opportunities for developing leadership and followership qualities.⁴⁷ Burr, Harding, and Jacobs remind us that ⁴⁸ "through group work children not only get important work done; they also learn the meaning of shared roles of leadership; the responsibility inherent in freedom; the necessity of critical thinking in the solution of problems; and the need for the continuous evaluation both of the products of group action and of the processes employed."

Research is relatively silent on the problems associated with the use of sub-groups within classes. Sociometry provides one method of discovering how children think and feel about each other and which ones they would prefer as mates in various school activities. Experimentation with sociometric devices has resulted in a few useful cues regarding grouping. For example, experience has shown that it is desirable to avoid placing a child in a sub-group in which he is definitely rejected by one or more of the other members, or a group in which he actively rejects one or more members. An unchosen isolate should be placed in a group which contains one or more of his preferences and which contains no one who rejects him.

There are many unknowns, however, in connection with the use of sub-groups within classes. When committees are formed, should assignments be made entirely on the basis of pupil preference? To what extent should the teacher see to it that pupils who need particular experiences become members of groups in which the needed experiences are most likely to come about? To what extent should pupils have repeated membership in groups engaged in activities in which the pupil has special talent? Should each pupil's sub-group membership be changed frequently to give breadth of contact with all members of the class, as well as variety of activities? What about the youngster who refuses to accept his share of responsibility for the

⁴⁵ Ruth G. Strickland, *The Language Arts in the Elementary School* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1951), pp. 129-133.

⁴⁶ Gertrude Hildreth, *Child Growth Through Education* (New York, The Ronald Press Co., 1948), pp. 286-288.

⁴⁷ John U. Michaelis, *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy* (New York, Prentice-Hall, 1950), p. 180.

⁴⁸ James B. Burr, Lowry W. Harding, and Leland B. Jacobs, *Student Teaching in the Elementary School* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1950), p. 253.

more menial tasks of classroom routine? In the more strictly academic activities in reading, arithmetic, and spelling, is level of attainment in the subject field an adequate basis for forming groups? Suppose a child gets into a reading or arithmetic group in which he dislikes most or all of the other members. What effect will that have upon his interest in the subject and his progress? Cunningham and associates are not sure at all that reading groups need to be constituted on the basis of reading ability. Groupings based on interest in dog stories, in stories about farm life, and so on might be even more effective.⁴⁰ Will a child with delayed reading development make more rapid progress if grouped with children who read books at their own reading level or would he make more progress in reading ability if grouped with pupils who read more difficult books but on topics of high interest value? These are but a few of the issues to which research must address itself in the future.

PRACTICAL STEPS

The fact that neither theory nor research has given the answer as to the optimum size of class, as to whether classes should be of different size for different age levels in the elementary school, as to what variety of groups an elementary school should provide for, or what classification procedures should be used in forming these groups does not stop schools from operating. Schools must go on. Are there any guideposts for the practical administrator while he waits for better answers from research? It seems to the writer that current thinking on elementary education and the present status of research on the subject do give some generalizations. The most important of these is the need for each school or school system to do some experimentation of its own, to arrive at some answers of its own on groupings which are pertinent to the local situation. Perhaps national standards on class size and methods of grouping pupils, although very helpful as guides, are not always appropriate to the needs of children in a local situation.

Every plan for grouping should be evaluated carefully in terms of the objectives of education, the emphases to be sharpened up in a local school, and the aspects of child growth and development which have been accepted as special concerns of the local unit. In some communities the need for wholesome physical growth may overshadow other needs, whereas in other schools the social needs of pupils may be dire. In any situation it would seem shortsighted policy to promote mental development at the expense of social and personality development.

No scheme of grouping, no matter how carefully it has been worked out and adapted to the local situation, can remove individual differences among pupils or the variations in levels of maturity within a given child. In too many instances teachers and administrators have been misled by a fancy grouping scheme into the false notion that a panacea had been found for all

⁴⁰ Cunningham and associates, *op. cit.*, p. 244.

the problems of teaching. Individual differences are a blessing to the race as well as a most difficult educational problem.

No plan for the classification of pupils can automatically make satisfactory provision for all pupils. There will always be individual cases whose idiosyncrasies defy any organized plan for grouping. These will have to be handled as exceptions in any plan.

All authorities are agreed that no classification scheme can remove the need for adjusting instructional materials and methods to the varying needs of pupils in the group. Cook very aptly points out that the harm resulting from ability grouping is inherent in the assumption that the group is homogeneous and that instructional materials and procedures can be adjusted to the needs of the group as a whole—that, in other words, the problem has been solved before it has been really understood.⁵⁰ The need for meeting individual differences within a group is urgent even if the school system has differentiated curricula for groups of different levels of ability. The obligation of the school to furnish instructional material with a range of difficulty commensurate with the range of ability in the group is just as great when ability grouping is practiced as when it is not.

The smaller and medium-sized classes are to be preferred. If the school system must operate large classes, let them be in secondary education where the maturity of the student makes possible much greater independent effort and where presumably the student has acquired the tools of learning which enable him to do independent study. 'Tis folly to maintain large classes in the elementary school where the rudiments of learning are acquired, and then to complain later when high-school pupils cannot read or write. Throughout the literature on class size very little mention is made of the influence upon children of the teacher's personality. This person-to-person relationship between teacher and pupil may be sufficiently important to justify smaller classes at all levels. Graduate students at the university with which the author is connected seem to cherish the small seminar groups.

In-school groups may also be viewed from the angle of situations or purposes. The *school group* consists of the entire enrollment, and its character depends in part upon the particular grades housed in the building and the social and economic status of the community. The *grade group* is rapidly coming to mean a chronological age level, owing to efforts in recent years to reduce nonpromotion. The *home-room group*, usually thought of as limited to secondary education, is found in all elementary schools, although its organization and purposes are different from those of the secondary schools. The *class group* is distinguished from the grade group in larger schools in which there are several sections of the same grade and in rural schools in which several grades may be combined for certain subjects. *Co-curricular groups* are usually organized in terms of special abilities or inter-

⁵⁰ W. W. Cook, *Grouping and Promotion* (Minneapolis, University of Minnesota Press, 1941), p. 33.

ests. *Informal or temporary groups* arise from a variety of school activities, curricular and co-curricular. In the curricular field temporary groups are frequent when small numbers of pupils need special help or are engaged in a short-term project.

The school should enable each child to participate in groups of different kinds, of members of varying age and maturity levels, and of different sizes. Small schools, especially one- and two-teacher schools, could well afford to arrange interschool activities with neighboring schools to give the children broader contacts with other children of their own age. Ability grouping in the technical sense is hardly a profitable procedure in small schools. Efforts at securing greater homogeneity for instructional purposes will of necessity be limited to the more informal groupings made within each classroom. Schools with small enrollments need to give more attention perhaps than larger schools to the fact that interpupil stimulation, motivation, and social and personality development require at least large enough groups of similar interests so that these factors can be operative. In the one-room school, children of all ages are isolated in the sociological sense. The opportunity to develop "status among one's peers" is just as vital for the child in the small school as for the child in the larger school.

Special attention should be given to transfer pupils, whether they arrive at the beginning of the school year or at some time during the year. A new child arriving at a school, especially if it is a large school, is about as friendless and lonesome as a stranger arriving in New York City. Classification of transfers from an academic standpoint is part of the process of wholesome adjustment, but it is by no means the total problem. Children who attend many different schools in a short period of years are frequently found to swell the numbers of maladjusted, retarded pupils and early drop-outs. No doubt some of this maladjustment is caused by the fact that the child never really develops a feeling of belonging. He is never accepted to a sufficient degree by the group or by any group for a long enough period of time so that he can develop those genuine group affiliations which are so important to wholesome development. Schools might give consideration to the development of real "get-acquainted" or "coming-out" affairs for transfer pupils, something like adults do when a friend or relative has moved to town. The idea may seem facetious but the principle is sound.

The question is raised as to whether the grouping problem in relation to child growth and development is basically a classification problem or a curriculum and method problem. Some persons seem to give little thought to the need for, or place of, pupil classification in the total educational picture. They seem to feel that if schools could be really successful in the curriculum and method fields, pupil adjustment would take care of itself. The present writer feels definitely that classification and curriculum and method are all integral aspects of one major undertaking: the promotion of the well-rounded growth and development of children in the direction of the pur-

poses of education. Curriculum and method, without some plan for grouping pupils, would be difficult to manage; classification without regard to objectives, curriculum, and method would be untenable. New light should be cast upon the grouping problem as schools make progress in catching up with the frontiers of knowledge in elementary education. New methods and new curricular organizations may revolutionize classification procedures. Washburne, in comparing children in progressive schools with children in regimented schools of the same age, grade, sex, intelligence, and socioeconomic status, found that (1) the progressive school children were significantly superior to the traditional type school children in general social adjustment; (2) the children in progressive schools were happier than their conventional schools pairs; and (3) in purpose the progressive school pupils were consistently superior, the difference between the two groups being greater in the subtest showing the sense of purpose than in any other division of the test.⁵¹

Many phases of pupil classification are closely associated with promotion policies and practices. In some schools the primary grades have been organized as flexible groups wherein no formal promotions are made until the end of a child's third or fourth year in school. Within such a primary unit, groups are kept fluid throughout the period so that individual children are reclassified many times each year. Other schools have ungraded remedial rooms which always have a quota of pupils equal to the average size of class in the school. Some of the interrelationships between grouping and pupil progress will be treated in the next chapter.

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⁵¹ J. N. Washburne, "The Social Adjustment of Progressive School, Public School, and Orphanage Children," *Official Report of the American Educational Research Association* (1938), pp. 40-43.

6

Children's Progress Through the School

THERE IS PROBABLY no single aspect of the organization of graded elementary schools which continuously confronts teachers and administrative officers in a more baffling manner than that of children's progress through the school. It is generally agreed that a school system should be organized and administered so as to provide for the smooth, continuous, natural progress of every pupil. Yet there are many vital questions that need be answered and many procedures that must be worked out before actual practice can attain that goal. If teachers and administrators at any one level and at different levels in the school system can cooperatively arrive at reasonable agreement as to the fundamental principles and the administrative practices which should govern promotion—that is, the advancement of a pupil from one grade to another and from one school to another—perhaps the principal factor contributing to inarticulation in public education would be removed.

COMPLEXITY OF THE PROMOTIONAL PROBLEM

The whole problem of promotion is extremely complex and has intimate relationships with so many phases of the organization and the administration of the school that it is difficult to discuss it apart from its related setting. It is likewise difficult to isolate for discussion any particular aspect of promotion. The promotional practices of a given school are inextricably associated with the plans followed in the classification of pupils, the organization, content, and method of administration of the course of study, the size of classes, the instructional load of teachers, the organization of the program for instruction, methods of teaching, the types and amounts of remedial teaching that can be given, as well as other items that might be named.

A concrete example may illustrate further the complexity of the problem under consideration. Whether a fourth-grade child shall be promoted to Grade 5 or retained in Grade 4 will depend not only upon the level of his own educational development but also upon the general academic status of

the other members of his class or other classes with which he would become associated. If ability grouping and differentiated curricula prevail in the school, the question of promotion assumes new angles. Perhaps the child would do better if shifted to a group of lower ability or of higher ability, as the case may be. Perhaps the fourth-grade teacher may wish to consider such factors as the age and maturity of the child as compared to the general age status of the children in the various grades; the number of teachers to whom the child will be responsible if the instructional program is departmentalized; and the extent to which the teaching procedures of the receiving teacher provide for individual differences. Of the many factors that the teacher might consider, the ones that are likely to bear the largest influence in forming her decision regarding the disposition of the particular case are the ones which relate to the administrative policies and practices in the school, many of which would not be thought of as being intimately related to the question of promotion. It is hoped that these relationships may be brought out more fully in the subsequent discussion. Even though the problem of promotion has been isolated here for special treatment, the reader should bear in mind that in actual practice it cannot be separated easily from other aspects of organization and administration with which it is intimately associated.

PROMOTION INTERVALS

School systems may be divided into three groups in terms of the time intervals between promotion periods: those which promote once a year, those which promote twice a year, and the small percentage of school systems that have developed plans whereby promotions are made at irregular times during the year. There has been considerable dissatisfaction with promotion periods, and many other aspects of promotion practices, ever since the graded plan of organization received widespread adoption between 1850 and 1860. In fact, dissatisfaction with the annual or semiannual promotion practices of the graded scheme had become so widespread by 1862 that St. Louis saw fit to inaugurate a quarterly promotion plan when a reorganization was effected in that year.

Continued dissatisfaction with promotion intervals during the past 100 years has led to much shifting from one promotion interval to another. In 1931, 91 per cent of 92 cities with populations of 30,000 or more were operating on a semiannual promotion basis; the remaining cities in this group had annual promotions.¹ Semiannual promotions prevailed in only 32 per cent of 443 cities with populations under 30,000. During the ten-year period preceding 1931, out of 555 school systems, 51 had changed to the annual plan, and 68 had changed to the semiannual period. At the time the study was made in 1931, 41 cities were contemplating a change;

¹ Department of Superintendence of the N.E.A., *Five Unifying Factors in American Education*, Ninth Yearbook (Washington, N.E.A., 1931), p. 65.

26 were about to change from semiannual to annual, 10 from annual to semiannual; and 5 were planning to shift to a plan whereby promotion might take place at any time during the year.

More recent nation-wide data, as well as the continued dissatisfaction with promotion periods, are revealed in a survey made in 1947-1948.² Reports were received from 1398 city school systems of all sizes. In 1938, 73 per cent of these systems had annual promotions, 26 per cent had semiannual, and 1 per cent had quarterly intervals. By 1948 the scene had changed so that 93 per cent had annual periods, 7 per cent had semiannual, and less than one-half of 1 per cent had quarterly promotions. The per cent having annual promotions ranged from 60 for school systems in cities of over 100,000 in population to 99 for school systems in cities of 2500 to 4999 in population. During the decade from 1938 to 1948, 278 school systems changed the promotion period for the elementary schools; 270 of these changes were from the semester to the annual plan. Thirty-two per cent of the school systems in cities of over 100,000 population changed the promotion interval for elementary schools during this decade. Changes in promotion periods in elementary schools have been accompanied by similar but less widespread changes at the junior-high-school and senior-high-school levels. In 1948, 82 per cent of these 1398 school systems had annual promotions in junior high schools and 72 per cent used the annual plan in the senior high schools. During the decade 168 school systems had changed the promotion period in junior high schools, 154 of them having changed from the semester to the annual plan. At the senior-high-school level 155 systems had changed the promotion interval during the same decade, 133 of them having changed from the semester to the annual plan.

Although the survey from which the data in the preceding paragraph were taken did not endeavor to ascertain the reasons why changes in promotion periods were made, there is growing evidence that deeper insight into the learning process and the nature of growing children has much to do with the shift toward annual promotions. Fewer adjustments for the child, less time lost through the midyear reorganization, and greater continuity of teacher guidance are but a few of the advantages of annual promotions. These underlying values are evident in the fact that in 1948, 17 per cent of the 1398 school systems were experimenting with a "no failure" policy in one or more schools. According to this concept pupils move forward each year from grade to grade with the school providing for their differences in ability and achievement wherever they are instead of having them repeat grades.

These same educational insights and values are reflected in a poll of superintendents' and parents' opinions secured in 1944. Five hundred school superintendents and 250 leaders in parent-teacher organizations were asked

² "Trends in City-School Organization, 1938 to 1948," *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 27, No. 1 (February, 1949), pp. 29-31.

to express their opinions regarding the plan of pupil progress which they felt was most successful for the elementary school. Their replies were summarized as follows: ³

	SUPERINTENDENTS' OPINIONS	PARENTS' OPINIONS
<i>Preprimary division:</i>		
Annual promotions	47%	59%
Continuous progress	46%	31%
Semiannual promotions	4%	10%
Undecided	3%	—
<i>Primary division:</i>		
Annual promotions	66%	57%
Continuous progress	29%	14%
Semiannual promotions	5%	9%
<i>Postprimary division:</i>		
Annual promotions	72%	57%
Continuous progress	16%	14%
Semiannual promotions	12%	29%

Seemingly school superintendents and parents are expressing increasing concern for the educational significance of the schools' relationship to the child and are groping for administrative procedures whereby the desired educational values may be assured to children.

CHILDREN'S AGE-GRADE STATUS

The effect of entrance, attendance, and promotion practices can be revealed quite vividly through age-grade, grade-progress, and incidence of retardation studies. Each elementary school, and each school system, should make such studies periodically as a type of administrative research for keeping those responsible for the program informed on what is happening to children. Such studies also assist in evaluating a variety of curriculum and administrative practices, particularly those policies relating to children's progress through school.

In earlier years, when school entrance practices and compulsory attendance laws varied greatly from state to state, it was difficult to get comparable age-grade data on more than a local basis. Entrance practices as well as compulsory school attendance laws have now become sufficiently similar on a national scale so that it is possible to utilize with fairness a single standardized procedure for making each of the three types of studies named in the preceding paragraph. Pioneer work in making these kinds of studies was done by Maxwell, Ayres ⁴ in New York City in 1904, and Strayer and

³ "What About School Promotions?" *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 34 (August, 1944), p. 24.

⁴ Leonard P. Ayres, *Laggards in Our Schools* (New York, The Russell Sage Foundation, 1909).

Engelhardt;⁵ subsequent standardization was effected by Mort and Featherstone.⁶

Theoretically the elementary school is organized to receive pupils in kindergarten at age five and in the first grade at age six or seven, keep them in each grade for one year, and then pass them on to the next higher grade where they are also expected to remain a year. One year in each grade is the normal expectancy. Thus a child who entered the first grade at about six years of age and progressed regularly would be, while in any given grade, of an age which one would normally expect for that grade. In other words, he is normal-age for his grade. It is possible for a child to be normal-age for his grade (i.e., while he is in any grade other than the first) even though he entered the first grade considerably earlier or later than the usual age of six. For example, a child may enter the first grade a year later than usual, but if subsequently he is double-promoted, his age-grade status will equal the normal expectancy. Similarly, if a child enters the first grade a year younger than usual, but is held back through nonpromotion until his age advantage has been consumed, then his subsequent age-grade status will equal the normal expectancy. Of course many children who enter first grade at an age younger than the normal entrance age are not detained by nonpromotion, so that at any time when an age-grade census is taken they are recorded as underage for their grade. Underage status might also exist for pupils who entered first grade at the usual age, but who had experienced acceleration through double promotions. Similarly, an overage condition at the time a census is taken might prevail for children who entered first grade late and have not been accelerated, or who entered first grade at normal-age but were detained through nonpromotion.⁷

The first step in making an age-grade study is to determine the ages of the children in each grade. In annual promotion schools, the pupils' ages are always calculated as of September first. In semiannual promotion schools pupils' ages are calculated as of September first if the age-grade census is made during the first semester, but they are calculated as of March first if the study is made during the second semester. An example of how to calculate ages in an annual promotion school is as follows. John Jones was admitted to the first grade on September 9, 1946. He was born July 10, 1940. To get his age as of September 1, 1946, subtract 1940-7-10 from 1946-9-1. The answer is 6 years, 1 month, 21 days. He is thus classified as age 6. Ages from 3 months before the year to 3 months after are considered full years. Thus a child who is *between* 5 years 9 months and 6 years

⁵ George D. Strayer and N. L. Engelhardt, *The Classroom Teacher At Work In American Schools* (New York, American Book Co., 1920).

⁶ Paul R. Mort and W. B. Featherstone, *Entrance and Promotion Practices in City School Systems: Standards and Accounting Procedures* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932).

⁷ Henry J. Otto, *Promotion Policies and Practices in Elementary Schools* (Minneapolis, Educational Test Bureau, 1935), pp. 48-50.

3 months is considered 6 years old. Ages *from* 3 months after the year to 9 months after are considered half years. A child who is *between* 6 years 3 months and 6 years 9 months of age is considered 6½ years old. The same procedure is followed for all ages. The standard age intervals are:

AGE	INTERVALS	
4	3 yrs. 9 mos. to	4 yrs. 3 mos.
4½	4 yrs. 3 mos. to	4 yrs. 9 mos.
5	4 yrs. 9 mos. to	5 yrs. 3 mos.
5½	5 yrs. 3 mos. to	5 yrs. 9 mos.
6	5 yrs. 9 mos. to	6 yrs. 3 mos.
6½	6 yrs. 3 mos. to	6 yrs. 9 mos.
7	6 yrs. 9 mos. to	7 yrs. 3 mos.
7½	7 yrs. 3 mos. to	7 yrs. 9 mos.
8	7 yrs. 9 mos. to	8 yrs. 3 mos.
8½	8 yrs. 3 mos. to	8 yrs. 9 mos.
9	8 yrs. 9 mos. to	9 yrs. 3 mos.
9½	9 yrs. 3 mos. to	9 yrs. 9 mos.
10	9 yrs. 9 mos. to	10 yrs. 3 mos.
10½	10 yrs. 3 mos. to	10 yrs. 9 mos.
11	10 yrs. 9 mos. to	11 yrs. 3 mos.
11½	11 yrs. 3 mos. to	11 yrs. 9 mos.
12	11 yrs. 9 mos. to	12 yrs. 3 mos.
12½	12 yrs. 3 mos. to	12 yrs. 9 mos.
13	12 yrs. 9 mos. to	13 yrs. 3 mos.
13½	13 yrs. 3 mos. to	13 yrs. 9 mos.
14	13 yrs. 9 mos. to	14 yrs. 3 mos.

The second step in making an age-grade study is to make a distribution of pupils by grades according to their ages as illustrated in Tables 15 and 16. If the school system operates kindergartens for five-year-olds the table will have to be extended to include the kindergarten, or be extended by two intervals if there is also a program for four-year-olds.

The third step consists of making the summaries at the bottom of the table. The standard normal-age limits for each grade appear in bold-face type. In annual promotion schools these limits include three age intervals (1½ years) for each grade to allow for the normal variation in birth dates during the different months of the year. For semiannual promotion schools the normal-age zones are logically confined to two age intervals (1 year).

The final step in age-grade studies is an analysis of the findings and their use in studying the grouping, promotion, entrance, and attendance practices in the school. Studies of this kind may have much value in revealing the relationships between curriculum and instructional practices and those relating to pupil personnel factors.

CHILDREN'S GRADE-PROGRESS STATUS

Studies of the age of entrance and of the age-grade status of pupils supply significant information about pupil personnel in relationship to the school program. These studies, however, give only a partial and static picture of conditions at particular points. This partial picture can be supplemented by

TABLE 15: Chronological Age-Grade Status of Elementary-School Pupils in a City School System Having Annual Promotions *
(Ages Calculated as of September 1, 1946)

AGE	GRADE						TOTAL
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
5½	1						1
6	446						446
6½	471	25	1				497
7	220	312	7				539
7½	130	370	26				526
8	96	189	301	4			590
8½	79	109	273	66			527
9	48	54	146	253	3		504
9½	31	50	77	256	67	1	482
10	21	31	52	157	238	16	515
10½	13	33	59	77	243	70	495
11	9	14	28	64	131	257	503
11½	6	25	30	52	71	222	406
12	6	3	28	30	68	128	263
12½	1	9	13	34	41	61	159
13		1	7	21	27	27	83
13½	2	2	7	14	15	12	52
14			4	10	22	5	41
14½			1	8	13	11	33
15			1	8	3	12	24
15½			1	5	1	8	15
16			1	2		2	5
16½				1		5	6
17						1	1
Total	1,580	1,127	1,063	1,062	943	838	6,713
<i>Number</i>							
Underage	1	25	34	70	70	87	287
Normal-age	1,137	871	720	666	612	607	4,613
Overage	442	331	309	326	261	144	1,813
<i>Per Cent</i>							
Underage06	2.04	3.20	6.59	7.42	10.38	4.24
Normal-age	71.97	70.98	67.73	62.71	64.90	72.44	68.72
Overage	27.97	26.98	29.07	30.70	27.68	17.18	27.04

* From Madge Stanford, *The Report of a Survey of Pupil Personnel in the Austin Public Schools*, unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Texas, 1950, p. 35.

LE 16: Chronological Age-Grade Status of Elementary-School Pupils in Fifteen Semiannual Promotion Systems as of March 1)

AGE	GRADE																TOTAL
	1-l	1-h	2-l	2-h	3-l	3-h	4-l	4-h	5-l	5-h	6-l	6-h	7-l	7-h	8-l	8-h	
5	4																4
5½	112	7															119
6	1,382	334	8	2													1,726
6½	448	1,785	132	12													2,377
7	162	936	998	303	19	7											2,425
7½	20	211	508	1,445	188	37	5										2,414
8	24	100	211	847	1,064	320	53	7									2,626
8½		18	90	268	470	1,379	189	29									2,443
9		13	38	116	247	820	912	317	49	15							2,527
9½	2	5	22	38	103	270	504	1,284	267	61	11	1					2,568
10	2	1	7	25	69	178	243	780	774	400	54	19					2,552
10½		1	3	9	23	66	110	290	482	1,130	259	78	4	1			2,456
11			2	6	16	48	74	167	290	857	709	347	34	25	1		2,576
11½	2	1	3	3	1	14	43	62	148	333	473	1,147	222	97	3	4	2,553
12					3	8	25	56	93	188	253	818	607	359	39	17	2,466
12½					1	2	12	20	56	93	176	337	299	897	173	138	2,204
13							5	8	30	48	128	229	201	671	361	411	2,092
13½							2	6	10	31	62	109	87	245	240	801	1,593
14					2		3	2	16	13	37	77	85	163	190	650	1,238

14½	1	4	7	14	38	32	82	91	317	586							
15			7	7	18	37	54	46	184	353							
15½			1	5	15	6	26	25	110	188							
16		1	1	1	4	3	10	26	70	116							
16½				2	1	2	3	10	30	48							
17	1				1		1	2	14	19							
17½							1		7	8							
18							1	1		2							
Total	2,158	3,412	2,019	3,074	2,207	3,149	2,181	3,028	2,220	3,185	2,191	3,239	1,619	2,636	1,207	2,754	40,279

Number

Underage	116	341	140	317	207	364	247	353	316	476	324	445	260	482	215	571	5,174
Normal-age	1,830	2,721	1,506	2,292	1,534	2,199	1,416	2,064	1,256	1,987	1,182	1,965	906	1,568	601	1,451	26,478
Overage	212	350	373	465	466	586	518	611	648	722	685	829	453	586	391	732	8,627

Per Cent

Underage	5	10	7	10	9	11	11	12	14	15	15	14	16	18	18	21	13
Normal-age	85	80	75	75	70	70	65	68	57	62	54	61	56	60	50	53	66
Overage	10	10	18	15	21	19	24	20	29	23	31	25	28	22	32	26	21

• From Henry J. Otto, *Promotion Policies and Practices in Elementary Schools* (Minneapolis, Educational Test Bureau, 1935), pp. 54-55.

an even more revealing investigation—namely, that of the rate at which children progress through the different divisions of the school system. It is generally assumed that the organization and the program of the elementary school are so planned that each child shall spend one year in each school grade; that is, each child shall make regular, uninterrupted progress. A child who passes regularly from grade to grade, year-by-year, is said to be making normal progress in school.

Unfortunately all children do not make normal progress. There are some pupils who because of unusual ability or other factors are found to be far ahead of their mates in school work. Sometimes these children are singled out and given special or double promotions. That is, they are permitted to skip a grade and consequently are said to have experienced rapid or accelerated progress. Sometimes it is the children who began school at a late age who are singled out for double promotions. But regardless of the reasons for acceleration, it disrupts the scheme of normal progress upon which the school has been organized.

In addition to the accelerated pupils there is another group of children who do not make normal progress. This group consists of those who fail of promotion at one time or another and consequently experience retarded or slow progress. It is possible, of course, that at any time a grade-progress study is made there may be some children who at one time experienced acceleration and at another time retardation, so that the sum total of their irregularities results in the same rate of progress as that of a pupil of corresponding grade who has made normal progress throughout his school career. Normal progress, therefore, means negotiating the school grades at a regular rate. A child who is now in the sixth grade and is spending his sixth year in an annual promotion school (exclusive of any time spent in the kindergarten) has made normal progress even though he has skipped a grade, provided he also has repeated a grade. Retarded progress means progress through the grades at a rate slower than the usual one grade per year. Accelerated progress means progress at a rate more rapid than the usual one grade per year. For semiannual promotion schools, accelerated, normal, and retarded progress would be defined in terms of semesters and half-grades instead of years and full grades.

The first step in making a grade-progress study is to determine the number of years or half-years that each child has been in school. In annual promotion schools the interval for "number of years attended" is one year; in semiannual promotion schools this interval is one-half year. The child's permanent record card is the most accurate and reliable source from which to make this determination. If the permanent record card does not contain this information, or is incomplete in this regard, the data may be obtained by interviewing the pupil or his parents. Interview data are less likely to be accurate than school records; consequently the latter should be used as far as possible.

The second step in making a grade-progress study is to distribute the children in each grade according to the type and amount of progress made as illustrated in Table 17. Note that boys and girls are tabulated separately as well as combined in a total. All pupils who have been in school a number of years (including the current year) equal to the grade in which they are located at the time of the study are considered as having made normal progress and are entered in the table in the "normal progress" category. For example, a child now in the third grade who is this year spending his third year in school is considered as having made normal progress. Whenever the number of double promotions equals the number of nonpromotions, the net result is also normal progress. Children who have been in school one or more years *more than* the number of the grade in which they now are have experienced retarded progress, and are tabulated in accordance with the number of years each is retarded. Acceleration is calculated in a similar way except that in these cases the child has been in school one or more years *less than* the number of the grade in which he is now placed. If tenure in the kindergarten is to be included, the table should be extended to the left to include the kindergarten. For semiannual promotion schools the table will have to be modified so that there are spaces across the top for each half-grade, like Low First, High First, and so forth.

Calculating the totals as shown in the lower portion of Table 17 and calculating the percentages constitute the third step in making a grade-progress study. After these steps have been taken the important task of analyzing and appraising the findings remains. It is only as the findings are utilized in reaching decisions about individual pupils and in viewing children's progress in relation to other major practices in the school that such studies become worth making.

The extent to which the data in Table 17, gathered in 1946-1947, are typical of conditions in the country at large can be seen from the following comparison of data from several studies.

GRADE VI	DISTRICTS IN ILLINOIS ⁸	MORT AND FEATHER- STONE ⁹	PENNSYL- VANIA STUDY ¹⁰	STANFORD STUDY
	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
Progress:				
Retarded	19.6	27.2	37.9	21.1
Normal	76.4	68.8	58.8	75.5
Accelerated	4.0	4.0	3.3	3.4

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 75.

⁹ Mort and Featherstone, *op. cit.*, p. 35.

¹⁰ *The Evaluation of Pupil Progress in Pennsylvania*, Bulletin No. 19 (Harrisburg, Pa., Department of Public Instruction, 1941), p. 16.

TABLE 17: Grade-Progress Status of Elementary-School Pupils in an Annual Promotion System, 1946-1947 *

DATE OF PROGRESS	YEARS	GRADES												TOTAL	
		1		2		3		4		5		6			
		Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent	Num-ber	Per Cent
BOYS	Retarded	2	.25	1	.15	4	.74	14	2.51	1	.20	1	.24	23	.67
	3	4	.50	12	1.85	9	1.68	18	2.23	11	2.25	7	1.65	61	1.76
	2	24	3.02	29	4.48	40	7.45	47	8.44	46	9.41	21	4.95	207	6.00
	1	99	12.47	95	14.66	103	19.18	86	15.44	82	16.77	56	13.21	521	15.11
GIRLS	Normal	654	82.37	494	76.23	369	68.72	379	68.04	328	67.08	310	73.11	2,534	73.47
	Accelerated	11	1.38	17	2.62	12	2.23	13	2.33	21	4.29	29	6.84	103	2.99
	2														
	3														
TOTAL	4 up														
	Retarded	1	.12	1	.17	3	.57	3	.61	2	.45	1	.25	11	.34
	3	4	.50	8	1.36	8	1.52	19	3.84	11	2.48	5	1.25	55	1.69
	2	32	4.00	27	4.61	37	7.01	26	5.25	40	9.03	10	2.49	172	5.29
TOTAL	1	85	10.64	59	10.07	64	12.12	53	10.70	60	13.54	43	10.72	364	11.19
	Normal	665	83.23	468	79.86	396	75.00	376	75.96	300	67.72	320	79.80	2,525	77.64
	Accelerated	12	1.50	23	3.92	20	3.78	18	3.64	30	6.77	20	4.99	123	3.78
	2											2	.50	2	.07
TOTAL	3														
	4 up														
	Retarded	251	15.76	232	18.80	268	25.16	266	25.28	253	27.14	144	17.45	1,414	21.10
	Normal	1,319	82.80	962	77.96	765	71.83	755	71.77	628	67.38	630	76.36	5,059	75.50
TOTAL	Accelerated	23	1.44	40	3.24	32	3.00	31	2.95	51	5.47	51	6.18	228	3.40
	Total	1,593	100.00	1,234	100.00	1,065	100.00	1,052	100.00	932	100.00	825	100.00	6,701	100.00

* From Madge Stanford, *The Report of a Survey of Pupil Personnel in the Austin Public Schools*, unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Texas, 1950, p. 80.

Age-grade and grade-progress data may be combined into one table in order to show whether accelerated, normal, or retarded progress has prevailed among underage, normal-age, or overage pupils. The easiest way to show both kinds of information in one tabulation is to make a separate table for each grade in which the age categories are shown vertically along the left hand side of the table and the progress categories are placed horizontally across the top of the table. The summary facts from the separate tables can then be collected into a general age-grade-progress table for the whole school or school system.

THE INCIDENCE OF RETARDATION

To know the percentage of children in each grade who have been accelerated or retarded in their progress through school is important, but it is even more valuable to know the grades which have been repeated most frequently. In this way one may ascertain the place in the educational program which forms a stumbling block for the largest number of pupils. If one should discover that more pupils are failing of promotion in Grade 4 than in any other grade, one would have facts which might form the basis for a more careful study. Perhaps the course of study is too heavy or too extensive for that grade, or it may be that teachers of that grade are more exacting in their standards, or there may be other causes. An "incidence of retardation" study proposes to discover the proportion of nonpromotions which occur in each grade and to ascertain the specific grades in which the largest proportion of retardations occur.

The first step in making such a study is to determine which grades, if any, were repeated by each pupil. Children's permanent record cards should be used for this purpose, but if these are inadequate pupil or parent interviews must be relied upon. Information on what specific grades a child repeated may be noted on the record card when the data for a grade-progress study are assembled.

The second step is to make a distribution of those who have had one or more nonpromotions in accordance with the pattern shown in Table 18. In making this distribution it is advantageous to take one grade at a time. For example, of the 40 pupils now in Grade 1, 12 are repeaters in Grade 1; of the 38 pupils now in Grade 2, 10 repeated Grade 1, and 6 are now repeating Grade 2 (these 6 pupils may or may not be the same ones who repeated Grade 1). A similar procedure is followed for each of the remaining grades.

Nationwide data on the incidence of retardation are not available. Facts from two representative studies are shown in the supplement to Table 18.

Studies of this kind invariably show that the grade which harbors the largest number of nonpromotions is Grade 1, with the second largest number in Grade 2. After children have emerged from the primary grades the

TABLE 18: Incidence of Retardation in a Group of Annual Promotion Schools *

Record under each grade the number of pupils now in that grade who repeated each of the grades listed at the left side of this table.

GRADES	GRADES								TOTAL
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
1	79	76	69	57	53	61	39	38	472
2		45	47	45	57	33	24	20	271
3			37	35	28	39	32	21	192
4				33	44	35	23	21	156
5					25	21	19	17	82
6						19	18	15	52
7							10	8	18
8								9	9
Number of different children who repeated one or more grades	79	88	132	153	167	172	142	138	1,071
Total number of children in grade	1,043	1,029	997	1,101	1,065	1,008	846	809	7,897
Per cent of children who have repeated one or more grades ..	7.6	8.6	13.2	13.9	15.7	17.1	16.8	17.1	13.6

* From Henry J. Otto, *Promotion Policies and Practices in Elementary Schools* (Minneapolis, Educational Test Bureau, 1935), p. 88.

Percentages of Pupils Who Had Repeated One or More Grades

GRADES	DISTRICTS IN NORTHERN ILLINOIS ¹¹	AUSTIN, TEXAS SCHOOLS FOR WHITE SCHOLASTICS ¹²	AUSTIN, TEXAS SCHOOLS FOR COLORED SCHOLASTICS ¹²
I	7.6	15.01	11.56
II	8.6	15.97	46.03
III	13.2	20.35	58.02
IV	13.9	22.66	53.13
V	15.7	23.28	49.57
VI	17.1	18.19	49.32

¹¹ Otto, *op. cit.*, p. 88.

¹² Madge Stanford, *The Report of a Survey of Pupil Personnel in the Austin Public Schools*, unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Texas, 1950, p. 129.

chances for nonpromotion are not very high. Although some children repeat a given grade twice or oftener, most children who experience nonpromotion have this event occur to them only once during their careers in the elementary school. Because some children repeat Grade 1, others Grade 2, and so on, the proportion of pupils who have experienced nonpromotion once or oftener increases grade by grade, except in the upper elementary grades in which many of those who have experienced repeated nonpromotions have dropped out. These trends are evident in Table 18 and its supplement.

METHODS OF APPRAISING CHILDREN'S PROGRESS

Much good paper and fine ink and many heated discussions have been devoted to the problems inherent in methods of appraising children's progress and methods of reporting to parents.¹³ Much of this debate could be avoided if certain issues were identified clearly and kept in proper perspective and relationship to each other. *Appraising children's progress is an inescapable, integral aspect of everyday teaching.* It is not something that one does once a month, once every six weeks, or twice a year. The function of teaching is to guide and facilitate desired types of learning by children. Any person who desires to be an intelligent and effective teacher must use regularly a variety of methods for (a) ascertaining the present level or status or degree of maturity of each child's development in each major area in which the school endeavors to promote children's learning, (b) diagnosing the types and significance of difficulties the child is experiencing in his learning efforts, and (c) appraising past and present progress in the light of the individual's unfolding growth pattern.

The teacher's focus and objective in appraising children's progress is to find out as much as she can about each child and the class as a group so that her plans and decisions about working with children may be made more wisely. The teacher needs to know whether Johnny is a slow grower, an average grower, or a fast grower. She needs to know whether he is a rapid or slow grower in reading but about average or rapid in most other ways. She needs to know at what level Johnny is ready to take hold in reading or arithmetic or in committee assignments so that Johnny may be given tasks that challenge him but are not insurmountable for him. The teacher needs to know all of the things about Johnny that are important for a teacher to know in order to make wise decisions in grouping (grade placement), how to deal with him as a person, and how to get him to develop greatest interest and to put forth his best efforts in school activities. The teacher needs to

¹³ Fred C. Ayer, *Practical Child Accounting* (Austin, Texas, The Steck Company, 1949), Chs. 9, 10, and 11; Bernard I. Bell, "Know How vs. Know Why," *Life*, Vol. 29 (October 16, 1950), pp. 92, 97-98.

know all of these things about every child in her class. She also needs to know how to put this information about individuals together so that she can also see the children as a group and may therefore make wiser plans regarding class-as-a-whole and sub-group activities. All of these many kinds of information, and the different methods and tools for gathering them, constitute the content and procedures of "appraising children's progress" because these kinds of information are basic to good teaching.

What tools and procedures does the teacher use in inventorying and appraising children's growth and development as an integral part of teaching? Observation of children in all types of activities is undoubtedly a most valuable and the most frequently used procedure. Although teacher observation is inadequate if it is the only procedure used, observation is an indispensable component of any good system for studying children. The teacher will also use a variety of informal teacher-made dictation, paper-and-pencil, or other types of tests and exercises. Some textbooks, especially those in arithmetic and spelling, contain some inventory or review tests that are useful. There are also standardized tools that will be needed. The scale is a standardized device for obtaining children's weight. The yardstick is a standardized instrument for measuring height. Intelligence tests are standardized tools for obtaining information on mental age and intelligence quotient. Standardized achievement tests are tools for measuring the maturity levels to which individuals have developed in the academic areas. Diagnostic tests help a teacher to spot children's specific learning difficulties. These various tools and procedures, plus many others that might have been listed, are used by teachers at different times of the year, different times of the month or week, in order that they may more wisely guide and facilitate children's learning.

In all the inventory and appraisal activities identified in the preceding discussion the teacher's objective has been to inform and equip herself to do a better job of teaching. A comparison or ranking of members of the class to ascertain who are the most able, the most mature, the best readers, and so forth, or who are the least able, the least mature, the least capable in group discussion, the least skillful in serving as chairman of a committee or on the safety patrol *could be made* in terms of any of the appraisal procedures used *but is actually unnecessary* in terms of the teacher's purpose in gathering information about children. All the teacher sought was information for deciding what kinds of help to give individuals and groups, what kinds of activities and experiences to provide, what kinds of materials to make available, and what kinds of guidance to give. It is only because much of the teaching and much of pupil activity has to be done in groups of various sizes that the teacher makes use of the comparison possibilities in the data that have been gathered. She needs to know whom to put in which reading or spelling group, whom to place with whom on the next set of com-

mittees to be organized, whom to give what kinds of help, among other things. Actually the comparison possibilities in the data are used for *teaching purposes* and not for comparison or ranking purposes as implied in the conventional marking system. Marks (such as A, B, C, D, and F) have no usefulness as long as appraisal procedures are integral aspects of teaching.

It is only when methods for inventorying and appraising children's growth and development become linked with reporting to parents that the issue about a marking system enters the picture. The writer has never known a teacher or school system that used marks for any purposes other than reporting to parents and permanent records. In the latter instance a student's marks are used when transfers to other schools are requested, for educational and vocational guidance, recommendations to prospective employers, and so forth. If school marks do have important uses as a part of a student's permanent record, are those uses and values applicable primarily in senior high schools and colleges, and, if so, why foist their presence upon elementary schools? In view of the unreliability of teachers' marks, are there types of more objective and more accurate information about pupils which might better be used in permanent records in lieu of teachers' marks? Is it likely that the persistent argument to retain teachers' marks because of the uses made of them before other and more reliable types of data were available is clouding the issue and actually deterring schools and colleges from experimenting with anecdotal records, rating scales, and results of standardized mental and achievement tests as substitutes for teachers' marks? At any rate, the issues relating to marking systems are too tangentially related to methods of *appraising* children's progress to warrant further discussion at this point. If a marking system is used it has its relationships to promotion or nonpromotion from one grade to the next and to methods of reporting to parents.

MARKING SYSTEMS

Nationwide data on marking systems now in use in elementary schools are not available, but studies that sample practices in selected areas are probably indicative of practices in general. Shane and McSwain reported that in 1951, 14 out of 15 of the largest cities in a midwestern state were using A-B-C-D-F marks in their elementary schools.¹⁴ Niland's survey of marking and reporting practices in 246 school systems in Texas in 1950 revealed the following array of methods: (a) use of A-B-C-D-F letter grades in 73 per cent of the systems; (b) use of S and U, satisfactory and unsatisfactory, in 37 per cent of the systems; (c) use of percentage grades, 10 per cent; (d) letter or percentage symbols supplemented by a check list of character and personality traits, 39 per cent; (e) use of number grades

¹⁴ Harold G. Shane and E. T. McSwain, *Evaluation and the Elementary Curriculum* (New York, Henry Holt and Co., 1951), p. 313.

(1, 2, 3, 4, and 5), 2 per cent; (f) use of a "check-form" type of report, 11 per cent; (g) use of informal letters, 9 per cent; and (h) reporting by means of teacher-parent conferences, 7 per cent.¹⁵ The percentages in the preceding tabulation total more than 100 because some school systems used more than one of the procedures. In 90 per cent of the systems, reports to parents were issued once every six weeks.

That there is much continuing dissatisfaction with marking systems and methods of reporting to parents is evident from the number of articles in professional journals and the number of research studies that continue to be undertaken. During a 10-year period from 1941 to 1950, 36 leading educational journals published 170 articles on this subject, the number per year ranging from 11 in 1949 to 23 in 1945 and 21 in 1950.¹⁶ Niland's study also showed that 88 per cent of the school administrators believed that improvements could be made in their marking and reporting practices and that 58 per cent of the school systems were contemplating making some changes in their procedures.

Similar dissatisfaction with present marking and reporting practices was also revealed by Erskine's study of problems relating to reporting pupil progress to parents.¹⁷ Out of 200 Texas school administrators, 38 per cent were dissatisfied with their present reports, 50 per cent said that there had been some expression of dissatisfaction of present reporting practices by parents and teachers, and 56 per cent said that their present report cards were supplemented by conferences. Educators, such as Bain,¹⁸ Good,¹⁹ Walters,²⁰ Tuttle,²¹ McNally,²² Smith,²³ and Sites,²⁴ write about the limitations of comparative marking systems as methods of appraising pupil progress, reporting to parents, and promoting character development and mental health among pupils. Others, who view marking systems primarily from the administrative and child accounting rather than the teaching and child development angles, are ardent supporters of the A-B-C-D-F or other

¹⁵ Adella S. Niland, *A Study of Marking and Reporting Practices in Elementary Schools in Texas*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1951, p. 43.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 21.

¹⁷ Mary Erskine, *Trends in Reporting to Parents in Elementary Schools*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1951.

¹⁸ Winifred Bain, "Are Marks Nonsocial Phenomena?" *Childhood Education*, Vol. 20 (February, 1944), pp. 264-266.

¹⁹ Warren R. Good, "Should School Marks Be Abolished?" *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*, Vol. 17 (October, 1945), pp. 6-9.

²⁰ H. G. Walters, "Let's Diagnose Jimmy, Not Mark Him," *School Executive*, Vol. 66 (February, 1947), p. 39.

²¹ F. P. Tuttle, "What Shall We Mark?" *American Childhood*, Vol. 33 (October, 1947), p. 11.

²² Harold J. McNally, "Evaluation of What? For What?" *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 35 (January, 1949), pp. 36-48.

²³ P. M. Smith, "Antisocial Aspects of Conventional Grading," *Educational Forum*, Vol. 14 (March, 1950), pp. 357-362.

²⁴ W. G. Sites, "Shall We Grade Them or Guide Them?" *School Executive*, Vol. 70 (August, 1951), pp. 35-37.

comparative systems.²⁵ Research dealing with marks and marking systems has been summarized in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*.²⁶

As far as the elementary school is concerned, the issues pertaining to the use of conventional marking systems may be grouped into five major categories; namely, (a) the use of marks in appraising children's progress in the areas of growth and development fostered by the school, (b) the use of marks in teaching and motivation, (c) the use of marks as a tool for ranking or comparing pupils, (d) the use of marks as a basis for determining promotion, and (e) the use of marks as a means of reporting to parents. In the discussion which follows no effort is made to document the supporting research and educational theory.²⁷ The treatment may be looked upon as the author's synthesis of research evidence and his own educational viewpoints.

MARKS AS TOOLS FOR APPRAISING CHILDREN'S PROGRESS

The previous discussion of "Methods of Appraising Children's Progress" described teachers' uses of observational, and informal, and formal testing procedures as means of securing information on children's mental, academic, social, and emotional maturity levels, learning difficulties, needs, interests, and adjustment problems. Data about children as individuals and as groups are essential as an integral part of good teaching. At no point in the survey and diagnostic procedures utilized by teachers for *teaching purposes* is there a place for an A-B-C-D-F or percentage or other type of comparative marking system. Teachers themselves would think it absurd if someone should recommend that they discover Mabel's errors in arithmetic or determine reading groups or committee assignments on the basis of marks received from another school by transfer or the ones they themselves had recorded at the end of the last six-weeks period.

A-B-C-D-F or percentage marks probably should not be used in rating daily papers. The modern emphasis in teaching is to take each child where he is and to assist him in moving forward from that point. If a child needs to learn the addition facts but still makes errors on some of them, what mark would you give him if he made seven errors out of 50 examples? On what basis would you determine whether it should be an A, a C, or an F? The answer to 2 plus 2 is 4. There is no other correct answer; neither is there an answer which is 25, 50, or 90 per cent correct. In writing, words are either spelled correctly or incorrectly. When errors persist, the child should find out what they are and make some effort to acquire the correct form.

²⁵ Ayer, *Practical Child Accounting*, op. cit., Chs. 9, 10, and 11.

²⁶ Walter S. Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, rev. ed. (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1950), pp. 711-717.

²⁷ Such documentation and bibliographies may be found in the sources named in footnotes 15 through 26.

When tasks and standards (goals for children to strive for) are sensibly adjusted to the maturity and ability of the pupil there is no point in fooling with marks which, to the child, mean comparison with others in the class or work which is correct to a degree. The essential point is that marks are unnecessary and probably misleading to the pupil when utilized in appraising daily work. Turning directly to the errors made and making an effort to learn and to use the correct form subsequently would seem to be better pedagogy. More effective learning probably takes place when the child's focus is upon improving himself and his work rather than upon getting a higher mark.

MARKS AS TOOLS FOR COMPARING PUPILS

Children are quick to discover who is the best reader, the best or poorest speller, the most or least cooperative and congenial, the fastest runner, or the best ball player. It is human nature for young and old to observe the various kinds of performance of different members of a group and to make comparisons. It would probably be impossible to gather 10 persons of any age into a group, to have the group engage in one or more activities, and to prevent any one or all members from making some kinds of comparisons. Humans will make comparisons of one person to another, one person to a group, or self to one or more others. It is on the basis of such comparisons that we congratulate or compliment each other and are ourselves motivated to greater effort. In school groups children are continually making comparisons of each other and the group. To the extent that such comparison is wholesome, and can be kept within reasonable limits, it goes on *without the presence of a marking system administered by the teacher*. Whenever comparisons by children themselves exceed wholesome limits the teacher usually intervenes to correct the situation. Comparisons, then, are normal phenomena in groups and cannot be escaped. The teacher's role is to keep them within the limits of wholesomeness and to utilize this normal tendency of children in constructive ways. Usually a marking system adds nothing that doesn't already exist without it. Its major contribution is merely to augment some of the negative factors which divert the children's focus from self-improvement to marks, create unfair competition between pupils of unequal ability and maturity, cause unwholesome personality complexes and character traits in those who always secure high marks as well as in those who always get low marks, and precipitate frustration and dislike for school on the part of the slow-maturing and less able pupils.

Teachers do need ways whereby certain comparisons can be made of the pupils in their classes. As described in an earlier paragraph, teachers need to know children's levels of ability, achievement in subject areas, and competence in social relations so that the difficulty of materials, tasks, and ac-

tivities can be adjusted to their needs. Sub-groups in subject areas and various kinds of committees need to be organized. The teacher needs to know which pupils can succeed with certain kinds of materials and tasks and which ones can work together comfortably in certain kinds of assignments. All of this involves comparisons and the choosing of pupils for various roles. The teacher's most useful information for these purposes consists of observational and various kinds of test data. A marking system is unnecessary and useless for these purposes.

Another aspect of comparison which must not be overlooked is the one that is inherent in the use of standardized mental and achievement tests. These tests were standardized by administering them to thousands of children of given ages. The grade equivalents and age norms were established by ascertaining the median or average score obtained by thousands of pupils at each of the different age and grade intervals. When a standardized test is given to a pupil the score can be given a meaningful interpretation only if its age or grade equivalent is ascertained. This means a comparison of the pupil's score with the scores obtained when the test was standardized. The comparison is thus in terms of a nationally standardized basis and enables the teacher to use standardized measuring instruments. Comparison is inevitable in the use of standardized tests but the basis for comparison is more reliable and valid than if informal teacher-made tests are used. Standardized test results are essential in obtaining developmental ages for individual pupils. Teacher's marks would be useless for this purpose.

MARKS AS A MOTIVATING DEVICE

The findings of only one research study have been published regarding the motivation value of a marking system in the elementary school. Tiegs found that 90 per cent of intermediate-grade pupils said they tried harder because of good marks and 97 per cent said they tried harder because of poor marks.²⁸ It is likely that these students responded as they did because they had been conditioned to operating under a marking system. No study has been reported in which pupil attitude toward their effort was sampled under conditions in which a marking system was absent. The writer has unpublished data in his file from three school systems in which the comprehensive type of standardized achievement test was given each year for one or more years before an A-B-C-D-F marking system was abolished and then given each year for four to six years after the marking system was discontinued. A comparison of children's achievement before and after the elimination of the marking system shows that there not only was no drop in the median achievement scores by grades but in most grades there was actually

²⁸ E. W. Tiegs, *Tests and Measurements for Teachers* (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931), pp. 170-171.

a slight increase. Undoubtedly the nature of these findings is due to the fact that teachers substituted more effective motivations in lieu of the threat of low marks or compensations for good marks.

Most teachers and most parents believe that a marking system is absolutely essential if pupils are to be kept motivated to good effort. The author's unpublished findings need to be supplemented with more careful studies in order to determine whether a marking system really has the motivating value that most teachers and parents think it does. It is very likely that careful research would explode this time-honored assumption. Teachers in schools which have abandoned the use of a comparative marking system report a happier and pleasanter situation, no evidence that pupils are slumping in their work or "going lazy" on them, and that motivation based on self-improvement and quality of work is more effective.

Research has shown repeatedly that learning is more effective if the individual is kept informed regularly of his progress and improvement. Good teaching should include many and varied methods whereby pupils can be continuously informed of their progress. Most teachers find that this can be done readily through a variety of daily activities and that a marking system is really unnecessary and not very useful for this purpose. Some educators contend that teaching must be at a low ebb if the marking system is the major motivating device for getting honest effort from students.

Even if it could be demonstrated that a marking system has some needed motivation value, one must appraise that value in comparison to some unwholesome accompaniments that every marking system fosters. Some children who always get good marks tend to acquire a "coasting" habit; their full abilities are seldom put to work because they can win good marks without too much effort. Sometimes undesirable attitudes also develop. Slow-learners, on the other hand, have difficulty ever getting good marks. Continuing low marks tend to create discouragement and "what's the use" attitude in some pupils. Children who get low marks tend to hide them from other pupils while those who get high marks tend to brag about them. Many a child who gets low marks has had serious heartaches, especially if low marks are accompanied by scoldings or spankings at home. The mental hygiene influence of a marking system should command serious consideration by teachers and parents.

Many parents and many teachers believe that a marking system is essential for preserving competition in school activities, that competition is a very realistic feature of economic and commercial life in this country, and that children should learn how to take success and failure under competitive circumstances. Some of the most ardent supporters of a comparative marking system base their major argument upon the competitive feature of it.

Several issues need to be seen clearly when the competition angle is discussed. Competition among children appears to be inescapable. From the time children are old enough to run and jump they try each other out to see

who can run the fastest, jump the farthest, or shout the loudest. This competitive spirit manifests itself later in all kinds of games, sports, and other activities; in later life it is present in adult social, civic, and economic activities. One probably could assay considerable evidence to show that the spirit of competition has had much to do with the progress and development of our country. For educators to endeavor to erase competition from children's school life would probably be futile and probably an undesirable effort. So much competition is ever-present in children's school activities that the presence or absence of a marking system really makes no difference. The school's problem is not one of eliminating competition and the competitive spirit but one of making sure (a) that there is an appropriate balance of competition and cooperation, (b) that both competition and cooperation are focused upon educationally and socially desirable activities (children could compete in breaking windows or cooperate in cheating), (c) that competition, whether between groups or individuals, is fair and is legitimately escapable if it is unfair, without unfavorable reflection upon or consequences for the individual, and (d) that competition is controlled within the bounds of fairness.

It may be helpful at this point to examine an illustration of unfair competition. Suppose we imagine a wrestling match between a typical 8-year-old and a typical 12-year-old. The younger boy has little chance of winning the wrestling match, but because he loses he is scolded and forced to try it again and again on subsequent days. Each time he loses he is scolded again and urged to try harder. The competition is unfair and inescapable by the younger boy. What would this kind of experience do to the defeated boy? If the 12-year-old is praised and rewarded for defeating the 8-year-old, what will such victory and reward do for him?

A comparative and competitive marking system is comparable to the wrestling match. Our classes are filled with children of widely differing abilities and maturities. A 10-year-old with an I.Q. of 80 has a mental age of 8, whereas another 10-year-old with an I.Q. of 120 has a mental age of 12. The tasks prescribed by the school are inescapable and the competition for marks is unfair. A father who whips his son for not getting all A's is just as inhuman as a person who would whip the 8-year-old for losing the wrestling match against the 12-year-old. The teacher who applies a comparative marking system to children of unlike ability is in the same position as the father who whips his son for not getting all A's, or the person who whips the 8-year-old for losing the wrestling match.

Another important factor in the matter of competition is to instill in each human being the desire, coupled with energy and activity, to improve himself regardless of how good or poor others may be. Unless this urge is developed the whole realm of competition disintegrates; people are likely to develop "What do I care" or "Let John do it" attitudes; and a decadent population may evolve. The important thing for schools to do is to help

children acquire firm convictions about the significant values in life and to instill in each child the urge to become as capable as possible in as many ways as possible. This means that teacher appraisal of a child's educational progress should be based upon helping him as an individual to become better each day than he was the preceding day. It means evaluation of pupil progress and motivation based upon self-improvement. A marking system merely complicates the task by introducing unfair competition into the situation.

Competition under a marking system is quite unlike competition in the business world. In the latter instance competition is fair, at least in so far as federal and state laws can control it. At the federal level the Sherman Anti-Trust Law, the Robinson-Patman Act, the Federal Trade Commission Act, and the Food and Drug Laws have been enacted in part to preserve competition, to prohibit unfair trade practices, and to prohibit false advertising in order to protect the consumer and to maintain fairness in competition. Each state also has several laws to maintain and control fairness in competition. In the business world competition is also escapable, in most cases with relative ease. The individual as well as the corporation has complete freedom of choice regarding the commercial field in which competition is to be undertaken. If the competition is disliked or becomes unsuitable in one field the individual or the corporation may shift its activities to another field. Competition in business is thus quite unlike competition under a comparative marking system at school.

MARKS AS CRITERIA FOR DETERMINING PROMOTION

In view of the preceding discussion about marking systems it becomes apparent that there are only three other major uses made of current marking systems: namely, for determining promotion, for reporting to parents, and for child accounting purposes. The several complications in using marks and other related procedures in determining grade placement of pupils and promotion from one grade to the next are discussed in the paragraphs which follow.

Subjectivity of teachers' marks. The factors which influence teachers' marks and the conditions under which marks are assigned by teachers in the typical elementary school make teachers' marks unreliable indices of the actual developmental status of individual pupils. The fact that teachers' marks may show a correlation of .70 or higher with achievement as measured by standardized tests simply indicates a ranking relationship between the two; it does not indicate developmental status. The latter statement holds true even if the normal-curve hypothesis is used as a basis for distributing marks. In most methods of using the normal-curve hypothesis a given percentage of pupils are thus doomed to failure by the very nature of the plan.

Many of the pupils thus receiving failing marks are not the ones having the lowest achievement status. In general, under present school practices, teachers marks are an unreliable basis for determining promotion from one grade to another.

Use of minimum passing marks. In an endeavor to improve the standards of work and the promotional practices, some school systems have made extensive efforts to establish and to systematize the minimum passing mark. In order to divide the pupils at the end of the term into two groups, those who shall pass and those who shall be retained, it is necessary to establish criteria on the basis of which this differentiation can be made. It has been customary in most schools to name certain percentages or letter grades as the minimum mark which a pupil may receive and still be classified among those who are to be promoted to the next higher grade. This "passing mark" has been thought of as more or less absolute and stable, and the goal of students has been to reach or to exceed this passing mark. Schools which required 75 or 80 per cent as the minimum passing mark were considered better than those which conditioned at 50 and passed at 70 per cent. Frequently the letters A, B, C, and so on, are used, but invariably they are thought to have corresponding percentage equivalents. This concept of a standard is erroneous. It is not the passing mark, but the percentage passed that is the significant factor. The passing mark as a standard of work is, and always has been, a fiction.²⁹

Use of specific objectives in courses of study. Another method which some school systems have used to improve promotional practices is the formulation of specific objectives in the course of study. For each subject, especially the academic subjects, and each grade, desirable goals of attainment are stated in rather concrete terms. It is hoped that these specifically formulated objectives will give teachers a more tangible basis for the evaluation of pupil achievement. Another purpose of this is to standardize promotions throughout the system so that pupils who transfer from one school to another may fit harmoniously into the work of the corresponding grade in the new school, and that teachers of each succeeding grade may know the precise academic status, or at least the minimum accomplishments, of the students who come to them.

It is doubtful whether the practice described above achieves its purposes, and, if it does accomplish its ends, whether those ends are desirable and can be justified. There is little doubt but that concretely stated goals will enable teachers to evaluate the work of pupils more accurately than if only broad, general objectives were listed. But *how much* more accurately it is done is not certain. The subjective methods for evaluating pupil achievement that are commonly used in public schools and the many subjective and frequently irrelevant factors which enter into the assignment of marks lend misgivings to the effectiveness of the enterprise.

²⁹ Tiegs, *op. cit.*, pp. 30-39.

If teachers throughout the system understand that the specifically formulated objectives constitute the standards for promotion from grade to grade, some teachers are likely to become disgruntled if some of the pupils they receive do not measure up. Frequently there arise unwholesome faculty relations, unfavorable attitudes toward the less able student, or a pernicious game of "passing the buck" which results in a neglect of the student who comes ill prepared. Some teachers feel that an injustice has been done them if they are called upon to do remedial teaching in fields of subject matter which belong in preceding grades and for the teaching of which other teachers have been paid but have neglected to do. Of course, such attitudes on the part of teachers manifest gross ignorance regarding child growth and the functions of a teacher. It is quite obvious that many children of less than normal ability will not be able to attain these definitely stated goals which have been formulated for the middle or average group. Yet it is administratively inconvenient to refuse promotion to all the pupils who do not attain these goals. Hence, the system fails as a method for the improvement of promotional practices.

Differentiated standards. Schools in which ability grouping is practiced and differentiated curricula are applied invariably establish higher goals of achievement for the superior sections than for the average groups, and higher standards for the latter than for classes of low ability. Such practice is to be commended, since it tends to avoid many of the undesirable conditions which develop if uniform standards are applied to all children.

In reality, differentiated standards of achievement are not a new venture in educational practice. There have always been wide differences in the accomplishments of a group of children promoted to the same grade by the same teacher. Differentiated standards give administrative recognition to a practice which perhaps has always existed. Such administrative action doubtless has a wholesome influence over teaching procedures and teacher-pupil relations. Although evidence is lacking, it is not likely that differentiated standards will lower the actual accomplishments of children or the quality of work in the schools. It is also doubtful whether differentiated standards offer an *adequate* solution to the problems of promotion. Non-promotion and failure still remain as characteristic features of the plan, although obviously the application of varying standards to groups of different levels of ability will tend to reduce the percentage of failure.

The use of test norms. Since standard achievement tests have come to be used more extensively in public schools, professional workers have been endeavoring to find the proper function and place of these instruments in the administration of promotions. In a few schools the grade norms on various standardized subject-matter tests have been substituted for previously used promotion standards. Grade norms on standardized tests have thus become the successive hurdles which children have been expected to mount in their progress from grade to grade. In so far as test norms usually

represent average or mediocre achievement, the practice may have some merit. Another advantage is that pupil achievement is compared, not with an arbitrary goal, but with one which automatically reflects the difficulty of the test, the adequacy of teaching, the correctness of the time allowance, and certain other factors; in other words, the grade norm is a reasonable and attainable goal for a large percentage of pupils.

The writer believes, however, as do many principals of elementary schools, that it would be unfortunate to adopt generally promotional plans in which the grade norms on standardized objective subject-matter tests would constitute the goals on the basis of which pupil progress from grade to grade would be determined. Such practice would introduce into the schools a standardizing force such as American education has never experienced. Promotional practices might develop which would differ only in outward character from the rigidly formalized plans which were in vogue during the middle of the nineteenth century and which we have unsuccessfully tried to eradicate for the past fifty years.

The use of age norms has also been proposed as a possible aid in the solution of promotion problems. Age norms are theoretically more accurate than grade norms because chronological age is more objective and definite than grade location. Because the correlations between achievement and chronological age are not very high, certainly much lower than correlations between achievement and mental age, it would seem that mental-age norms would be more useful than chronological-age norms. In either case it would seem that age norms are more useful as a basis for assigning marks and in ascertaining whether or not a pupil is working to capacity than as a basis for promotion. As standards for promotion, age norms are of little more value than grade norms.

The question may also arise as to the uses to which the various quotients—the AQ, EQ, the progress quotient, and the subject quotients—may be put in the administration of promotion plans. These quotients indicate the rate of growth in achievement as compared to mental or chronological age. A possible exception is the progress quotient, which is obtained by dividing the average chronological age of pupils in the grade by the chronological age of an individual pupil. None of the quotients indicates the level of educational attainment and thus none has a close relationship with standards of achievement for the different grades.

MARKS AS A MEANS OF REPORTING TO PARENTS

The survey of present practices in reporting to parents presented earlier in this chapter revealed that the majority of school systems were using some type of marking system, that many were supplementing the report card containing marks with check lists or conferences or both, and that there

was much dissatisfaction by teachers and school administrators with present reporting practices. From the standpoint of teachers and parents, marks have definite limitations as a vehicle of communication between child, teacher, and parent. It is probably unreasonable to expect teachers not to let the child's personality, character, behavior, and appearance influence the assignment of marks even in the subject areas. The resulting subjectivity of teachers' marks is well established. Even the most sincerely and objectively determined marks are merely a rating of the child's rank in class; it is difficult to make anything else out of them. Yet rank in a particular class may mean many things. Suppose the whole class consists of children of less than 100 I.Q., or children with language deficiencies because of non-English-speaking home backgrounds, or children whose median I.Q. is 120. What would an A or an F in any one of these classes mean as compared to the same mark given in any one of the other classes?

For a teacher to report rank in class to a parent is really a meaningless waste of time because the teacher hasn't told the many things the teacher would like to tell the parent. A mark of A or C does not tell the child's present level of development in reading, music, or cooperation. Neither does it tell the fine progress the child has recently made or the difficulties with which the teacher is giving him special help or the fact that his continuing fatigue and sleepiness are probably at the root of his lack of interest in school activities. Except for rank in class, marks don't convey any information to parents and don't provide a satisfactory means of communication for the teacher. It is for these reasons that many school systems have supplemented the conventional report of marks with check lists and teacher-parent conferences.

The school should consider itself under obligation to report to parents according to a schedule and by procedures that are feasible for the school and mutually satisfying to teachers and parents. Since the basic responsibility for child rearing rests with the home, and the school is merely an agency to assist the home in rearing children for responsible participation in a democratic society, the parents should be and are concerned with the school's objectives and the child's learnings. The home is therefore entitled to receive reports of progress from the school. The school, in turn, is under obligation to make reports. The basic issue is the "when, how, and what" of reports to parents.

It is only natural that schools should strive to make the kinds of reports that parents desire. This is the point at which conflict occurs. The majority of elementary school teachers recognize the educationally unsound features and the inadequacy of report cards with A-B-C-D-F, percentage, or S-U marks. Yet, when they ask parents what kind of a report they desire, the majority say "A-B-C-D-F or some other form of comparative marks." How can this dilemma be resolved? It is likely that schools still using a comparative marking system are misled by the parents' reactions. It must be remem-

bered that the parents themselves were schooled under a comparative marking system; it is the only system with which they are familiar. How could parents request some other system when they know no others? Instead of accepting parent approval of the status quo, perhaps the professional staff of the school should accept its responsibility in this area as well as in other aspects of school practice for giving leadership to the community in school improvement.

In most places in which the school faculty has taken the leadership in effecting improved reporting practices by equipping itself adequately for such leadership through in-service teacher education programs and by having parent committees work with the faculty in the development and introduction of the revised procedures, the outcomes have been very satisfying and enduring. Several studies have been reported which included parent and teacher evaluation of the conference method of reporting to parents. In one such study 60 per cent of 386 parents strongly favored the teacher-parent conferences; 28 per cent were inclined to favor them; and only 6 per cent were mildly or strongly opposed.³⁰ Typical among parent comments were these: "I feel that I know a lot more about how my child is progressing in school after a half hour's conference with the teacher than I did when report cards were brought home every six weeks with an 'S' down the entire column." "From my first conference I feel that I received more than a year's report from the cards used before." "In my humble opinion, the idea of parent-teacher conferences is both profound and progressive. This method has 100 per cent approval and endorsement of myself and my wife. However, I would like to impress the thought that for this method to be completely constructive and helpful to the child, the teacher should be frank in all respects so that the picture the parents derive is wholly accurate. In addition to the above, I might add that we are gratefully gratified with the individual attention afforded the pupils and the grand scope of your curriculum."

In another study 87 parents were interviewed after their children had attended a school for six years in which teacher-parent conferences composed the major feature of the reporting plan.³¹ One-hundred per cent of these parents felt that the child's social and emotional development could be expressed best in a teacher-parent conference; 91 per cent felt that they received sufficient evidence of the child's achievement to indicate his progress; 80 per cent said that they received from the teacher several suggestions that were helpful to them in dealing with the child at home; only one parent felt that a visit to the school for the conference was a waste of time; and 91 per cent said that it seemed unnecessary to issue a report card as long as

³⁰ From an unpublished report by J. B. Parr, Menger School, Corpus Christi, Texas, December, 1951.

³¹ Lilburn May, *An Evaluation of the Parent-Teacher Conference Method of Reporting Pupil Progress in the Sherman, Texas, Elementary Schools*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1952.

two teacher-parent conferences were held per year. Other studies show findings similar to the two that have been summarized.³² The evidence seems to show clearly that modifications in reporting practices can be achieved if the school faculty has the courage to give the essential leadership. All three of the studies to which reference has been made reveal a high degree of teacher enthusiasm for the conference method of reporting to parents in spite of the added teacher-time which the conferences require. Parr's and May's studies showed that teachers devoted approximately one hour to making the appointment with the parent, preparation for the conference, and holding the conference with the parent. This would mean about 60 hours per year given to parent conferences if a teacher had 30 pupils and held two conferences per year. May's study also revealed that teachers who issue the conventional report cards four times a year devote about 30 hours per year to this activity.

TABLE 19: Grade Equivalents of Class Median Total Scores on Metropolitan Achievement Test for Several Successive Grade Groups in the Sherman Elementary Schools, 1950-1951

GRADE	SEVEN-YEAR RECORD OF THE SEVENTH GRADE <i>Grade Equivalent</i>	SIX-YEAR RECORD OF THE SIXTH GRADE <i>Grade Equivalent</i>	FIVE-YEAR RECORD OF THE FIFTH GRADE <i>Grade Equivalent</i>	FOUR-YEAR RECORD OF THE FOURTH GRADE <i>Grade Equivalent</i>
Seventh Grade	8.3			
Sixth Grade	6.9	7.2		
Fifth Grade	5.9	6.2	6.4	
Fourth Grade	5.0	5.3	5.4	5.6
Third Grade	3.9	4.2	4.1	4.2
Second Grade	3.0	3.2	3.2	3.3
First Grade	*	2.1	2.3	2.2

* No record of test given.

May's study was made in a community with four elementary schools and about 75 teachers in Grades one through six. When the conference method of reporting to parents was begun in 1945-1946 the use of a comparative marking system was discontinued. Even on daily or weekly papers marks were not awarded. The Metropolitan Achievement Tests were administered in April of each year beginning in 1944-1945. He thus had access to the scores on a comprehensive achievement test for the pupils in each grade each year. The column headed "Seven-Year Record of the Seventh Grade of 1950-1951" in Table 19 represents the last class which came through the entire seven-year period under the use of a comparative marking system. When the marking system was discontinued and teacher-parent conferences begun, the new plan was started in only the first grade in 1945-1946. The

³² Earl R. Wiseman, *An Evaluation of the Reporting Scheme in the Wooldridge School in Austin, Texas*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1950.

plan was then extended year by year as the 1945-1946 first grade moved into each of the succeeding grades. Note that the achievement scores for the sixth, fifth, and fourth grades of 1950-1951 are all very commendable and in all cases are higher than the medians for the seventh grade. The pupils of the sixth, fifth, and fourth grades had spent their entire school careers under the new plan. Data such as these help to dispell the fears some people have that children's achievement sags in the absence of a comparative marking system.

TRENDS IN REPORTING TO PARENTS

It was to be expected that a changing philosophy of elementary education would bring about changes in appraising children's progress and in reporting to parents. Two recent studies have identified the character of these changes.³³ DePencier analysed 26 articles and books published between 1938 and 1949. Her study and that of Ruth Strang showed about the same trends. Throughout the literature on elementary education there is much emphasis upon the development of the whole child. Schools have become more concerned with the physical, social, and emotional as well as the academic development of children. As a result of this broadened emphasis in teaching the trend has been away from subject-centered toward pupil-centered reports. The form and content of reports have undergone many changes. There is the trend toward using more descriptive and anecdotal material and interpretative comments to supplement the quantative data. The descriptive materials strive to report on social, emotional, personality, and character development. The trend is away from mere judgment-passing and toward the analysis of problems and difficulties, the latter accompanied by concrete suggestions for improvement.

The trend in reporting to parents also includes more frequent use of letters or conferences with parents as a supplement to or substitute for report cards. The current tendency is to emphasize the individual pupil's progress rather than comparison with the achievement of fellow pupils. Reports to parents are made less frequently per year; instead of nine or six reports per year many schools make only two per year. The trend is toward fewer but more significant reports made at irregular intervals whenever home and school cooperation needs to be reviewed or changed. Reports made routinely at specified intervals are becoming less common. The literature shows a trend away from the use of comparative marking systems. An increasing number of school systems are recognizing the method of reporting to parents as an important public relations channel.

³³ Ruth Strang, *Reporting to Parents* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947); Ida B. DePencier, "Trends in Reporting Pupil Progress in the Elementary Grades, 1938-1949," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 51 (May, 1951), pp. 519-522.

One or more of the trends enumerated in the preceding paragraphs are evident in the descriptions of local practices that have appeared in educational journals in recent years. Hughes and Cox told about the ways in which parents and teachers cooperated in reporting to each other pertinent information about the child's development.³⁴ Ojemann and McCandless described parent participation in the development and evaluation of an experimental type of report.³⁵ Wills gave a detailed account of step by step procedure used in Portland, Oregon, in revising their reporting practice.³⁶ Hildreth summarized the pros and cons voiced by parents and teachers on the question of teachers visiting the homes of their pupils.³⁷ How teachers may develop greater skill and confidence in parent conferences was outlined by Stendler.³⁸ A comprehensive booklet of helpful suggestions on parent-teacher conferences was prepared by D'Evelyn.³⁹ Other articles described the change in practices in River Forrest, Illinois,⁴⁰ Mattoon, Illinois,⁴¹ and Lorain, Ohio.⁴²

CRITERIA FOR AN ADEQUATE REPORTING PLAN

It is not likely that the profession will ever discover a plan for reporting to parents that will be suitable in every detail for all school systems or for all schools within a given system. The nature of the neighborhood or community being served by a given school posits many factors which are frequently sufficiently unique so that a reporting plan must be adapted to those circumstances. The fact that parents should participate with the school staff in the development of a suitable reporting plan makes it necessary that each school or school system have considerable latitude in developing its own plan. One single plan should not be foisted on all schools everywhere. There are some guideposts, however, which identify important features which

³⁴ Marie M. Hughes and Vivian K. Cox, "Parents Report to Teachers," *Childhood Education*, Vol. 21 (February, 1945), pp. 317-321.

³⁵ R. J. Ojemann and R. A. McCandless, "Suggestions for a Fundamental Revision of Report Cards," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 32 (February, 1946), pp. 110-116.

³⁶ Olin J. Wills, "New Reports for Old," *Educational Leadership*, Vol. 4 (April, 1947), pp. 435-438.

³⁷ Glenn W. Hildreth, "Should the Teacher Visit Her Pupils' Homes?" *National Parent-Teacher*, Vol. 41 (May, 1947), pp. 26-28.

³⁸ Celia Burns Stendler, "Let's Look at Parent-Teacher Conferences," *Educational Leadership*, Vol. 6 (February, 1949), pp. 292-298.

³⁹ Katherine E. D'Evelyn, *Individual Parent-Teacher Conferences* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1945).

⁴⁰ W. E. Sugden, "Continuous Study Is Necessary," *Childhood Education*, Vol. 24 (February, 1948), pp. 277-279.

⁴¹ H. W. Hightower and V. L. Mitchell, "Report to Parents of Children in Primary Grades," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 46 (September, 1950), pp. 59-60.

⁴² T. K. Mullen, "Means to an End," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 52 (September, 1951), pp. 42-44.

should prevail in any good reporting scheme. Such a list of criteria is given below.

1. The content and procedures of the reporting plan should genuinely reflect the philosophy and objectives of the school. The aspects of children's development which teachers are urged to foster and appraise should coincide with the things on which teachers are asked to report to parents. The method of reporting to parents should be consistent with the philosophy of working with children which prevails in the school. There is nothing that is more frustrating to teachers than to live with children under one philosophy and then have to report to parents by devices which are in contradiction with their fundamental beliefs about what is good for children.

2. The reporting plan used in a given school should be the result of thoroughgoing faculty study of the philosophy and objectives of the school and the development of appraisal and reporting practices consistent therewith. In some schools the faculty is not aware of the fact that appraisal and reporting practices should be consistent with the objectives sought and the teaching procedures used. In order that the members of a school staff may have deep insights into "What are we trying to do for children? How shall we live and work with children? How can we tell parents about the goals we seek for children and children's progress in these directions?" it is essential that the plan of reporting to parents be derived from the philosophy and objectives of the school. Unless teachers have actually worked through this relationship, their own understanding of the reporting plan is likely to be shallow.

3. Under the leadership of the school staff, parents and pupils should be led to a full understanding and appreciation of the school's philosophy and objectives and how the reporting plan is related thereto. When parents have participated at various points in the development of the reporting plan they, too, will understand it and assist in making it work well. Any good reporting scheme is thoroughly understood by parents and pupils.

4. The report should include an appraisal of all phases of a child's development. School objectives as well as parent interest are broader than the academic fields. Parents, too, are concerned with children's physical, social, and emotional development. They are interested in the child's attitudes toward his work and toward others, how the child gets along with other children, how others like and accept him, and what leadership roles and opportunities he has. Many parents are more concerned with human relations, personality, and citizenship than they are with academic prowess even though they recognize the importance of the latter.

5. The evaluation procedure should make provision for self-evaluation by the child in respect to specific behavior-objectives. Individual and group evaluations are integral parts of on-going school activities. Children assist in developing standards of work and conduct for the class. Each child participates in collecting samples of his work to be placed in a folder so

that they may be shown to the parent at a later date. Children assist the teacher in preparing for and determining the content of the report to the parent. Reporting to parents is a pleasant experience which children anticipate with pride and satisfaction.

6. Evaluation and reporting procedures should stimulate interest in self-improvement and in placing value upon quality of work for its own sake rather than for marks. Learning for learning's sake and better behavior for its personal and social values are sounder goals than marks.

7. The reporting plan should emphasize the child as an individual and as a member of a social group. Comparisons with classmates should be avoided.

8. The reporting scheme should be suitable to the age level of the children, even if variations in the plan must be developed for different age or grade groups. The fundamentals of a reporting plan can be coherent and consistent for the whole school system even though the exact techniques vary from grade to grade or are different in the elementary school from what they are in the junior or senior high school.

9. Reports should be a confidential matter, of concern only to the school, the parent, and the child. Much of the information which teachers have about a child is highly personal and should not be bantered about in general conversation or written on forms which may fall into the hands of others. In protecting the sanctity of confidential information, teachers should abide by the same code followed by physicians.

10. If the reporting plan includes a periodically issued card, check list, or letter, such written report should be supplemented by at least one personal conference per year with the parents. It is not likely that any school system will invent a written report sufficiently adequate so that there is no need for one or more personal conferences. Individual parent-teacher conferences should be held at school if at all possible. Such conferences at school do not preclude the need for or desirability of teacher visits to the home.

11. Written reports, regardless of their type and form, should make provision for narrative statements or comments by the teacher. Frequently an explanatory statement, a bit of informational evidence, or a personalized word of commendation can mean more than all the marks or checks on the card.

12. The form of the written report should also provide a space in which parents may write comments or suggestions. Reports to parents should provide a two-way means of communication.

13. The report to parents should require much teacher thought and activity in continuing appraisal of children's development and in adequate reporting to parents, but it should require a minimum of clerical work by the teacher. The school office should shoulder as much of the clerical load

as possible. When the reporting plan relies heavily on individual parent-teacher conferences, provisions should be made so that a large proportion of the conferences can be held during school hours.

14. The reporting plan should serve as an effective public relations tool. The method of reporting to parents should bring about cordial relations between the home and the school, assist in revealing to parents the objectives, program, and methods of the school, and in building parent respect for the professional competence of teachers and administrators. Reporting to parents is the school's most consistently recurring contact with each home. It is the most vital public relations channel which the school has.

SPECIAL PROBLEMS IN PRIMARY GRADES

Numerous investigations have shown that pupil failure is largest in primary grades, that it is largest of all in the first grade, and that reading is the subject of greatest difficulty in the primary grades, particularly in the first grade. Pupil progress problems in the primary grades grow primarily out of the variations in children's age, maturity, and language facility, the curriculum requirements in these grades, the varied rate of children's development after school entrance, and school entrance policies. The interplay of these four factors creates a situation that has baffled school leaders for decades and it is not certain that completely satisfactory solutions are in sight.

Since about an equal number of children are born in each month of the year, there would be approximately 12 months difference in the chronological age of an entering group regardless of the specific minimum age designated for admission. In schools which admit new pupils semiannually this range would be reduced to about six months. Even if a school system admitted on the first of each month all pupils who had reached age six since the first of the preceding month the pupils so admitted would have to be placed in classes with older pupils unless there were enough beginners in each month in each elementary building to make a complete new class. The latter circumstance would seldom arise so that monthly admission of beginners would not solve the problem of chronological heterogeneity of kindergarten or first grade classes. Shifting the minimum entrance age up or down does not hold much promise as a solution to the problem.

The situation is complicated further by variations from state to state in the lower limit of compulsory school attendance and variations in the way local school systems have defined minimum admission ages within the zone of freedom accorded them. In only three states are children as young as six years required to attend school; and all states permit the attendance of children younger than the lower compulsory-attendance limit. Parents, therefore, may delay the child's entrance to school until the compulsory attendance age is reached. The fact that some parents exercise this option tends to

augment the chronological heterogeneity of beginners' classes. State laws authorize school systems to exercise some freedom in defining entrance ages as long as local regulations are not in violation of the law. This freedom has prompted some school systems to say that a child may enter in September if he becomes six years of age by October 1, or November 1, or even as late as by February 1. For example, in Tulsa, Oklahoma, children may enter kindergarten if they are five years old on or before November 1; they may enter first grade if they are six by November 1. In Texas, state aid is available only for children who have reached age six by September 1 but many school systems use local funds to pay for the schooling of children who become six years old by the first of October, November, or December. The latter plan is used mostly in school systems which do not have kindergartens, and is one way of partially satisfying parents who are eager to have their children start school as early as possible. The practice, however, does not result in reducing the age heterogeneity of beginners' classes. It merely admits to the first grade a larger proportion of younger children. In so far as chronological age has some relationship to mental age and readiness for reading, setting the entrance age at six years by November or December 1 merely augments the teacher's instructional problems and probably increases the percentage of nonpromotions in the first grade.

Variation in the chronological ages of beginners is not the only problem. Children do not grow and develop at the same rate. Any group of five- or 6-year-olds will show wide differences in mental age, I.Q., height, weight, and any other measurable index of maturity. Since mental age seems to have some relationship to success in beginning reading, a few venturesome school systems have developed procedures whereby admission to the first grade is based on mental age. Although this plan may prove successful in certain communities, it has many aspects which might prevent its general acceptance. Many parents still find it difficult to be objective and impersonal about mental age and I.Q., and hence would object to having a child's school entrance delayed on that account. In many communities some difficult public relations problems would arise if mental age were used as an admission criterion. Mental age and I.Q. are not the only determiners of success in school. Kyte's analysis of the reasons teachers gave for not promoting 1485 pupils in the first grade and the mental abilities of those pupils revealed that 52 per cent of the pupils had I.Q.'s between 90 and 109, 9.6 per cent between 110 and 119, 2 per cent between 120 and 129, and .3 per cent 130 or over.⁴³

Research has shown that boys mature more slowly than girls. The slower growth of boys at age six is noticeable in the rate of teeth eruption, eye-muscle development, and more particularly in anatomical development. There may also be a difference in mental maturity. These differences in ma-

⁴³ George C. Kyte, "Causes of First-Grade Non-Promotion in the Light of Measured Intelligence," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 38 (February, 1937), pp. 415-428.

turity at age six between boys and girls may approximate several months. Some authors have used these facts as a basis for recommending that the minimum entrance age for boys should be about six months higher than for girls.⁴⁴ This proposal has some advantages but it also has most of the limitations of mental age as a criterion. All boys are not equally immature at age six. Not all boys are as immature as some girls at this age. If all-round maturity were to be taken as the criterion for admission, some girls as well as some boys would be held for later entrance. The problem of determining all-round maturity would be insurmountable for most school systems.

The relation between mental ability and progress in reading still contains many unanswered questions. The earlier studies pointed to the conclusion that children cannot profit materially from reading instruction until they have reached a mental age of six years or preferably six years six months.⁴⁵ In 1936 Witty and Kopel published a critical analysis of 93 studies, articles, and reports dealing with readiness for and success in beginning reading. They concluded that reading should be delayed until children's background of experience and mental growth enabled them to find meaning in the tasks presented to them, and until this process of maturation had engendered a condition in which reversals are few and the perception of words and other meaningful units is possible. They implied that reading for most pupils should be postponed until age eight or nine, although they recognized that some would turn spontaneously and successfully to reading in the first grade or earlier.⁴⁶

Recent research in reading readiness has questioned the validity of the former studies. Evidence has been produced which shows that reading readiness is not determined uniformly by the presence of certain attitudes or attainments, but is the result of a combination of factors that differ somewhat in individual cases. Gates found that by employing modern methods well adapted to individual differences, reasonable progress in learning to read can be made by most first-grade children and that statements concerning the necessary mental age at which a pupil can be entrusted to learn to read are essentially meaningless. Gates, Bond, and Russell found the greatest predictive value for beginning reading to lie in tests which measure such

⁴⁴ Frank R. Pauly, "Sex Differences and Legal School Entrance Age," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 45 (September, 1951), pp. 1-9; Frank R. Pauly, "Should Boys Enter School Later Than Girls?" *Journal of the National Education Association*, Vol. 41 (January, 1952), pp. 29-31.

⁴⁵ M. V. Morphett and C. W. Washburne, "When Should Children Begin to Read?" *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 31 (March, 1931), pp. 496-503; E. C. Deputy, *Predicting First-Grade Reading Achievement: A Study in Reading Readiness*, Contributions to Education, No. 426 (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930); W. W. Theisen, "Does Intelligence Tell in First Grade Reading?" *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 22 (March, 1922), pp. 530-534.

⁴⁶ P. A. Witty and David Kopel, "Preventing Reading Disability: The Reading Readiness Factor," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 22 (1936), pp. 401-418.

abilities as word-recognition techniques; grasp of story structure; familiarity with printed words, letters, and phonograms; and familiarity with auditory features of words as shown by tests of rhyming, blending, and giving of letter sounds.⁴⁷ These investigators found that as a predictive index of reading success, mental age ranked 13 in a list of 39 types of tests and that methods of teaching had much to do with children's success in reading. The conclusions of Gates and his associates were supported by an analysis of 80 studies and discussions published by Betts in 1943. Betts concluded that the various factors which affect readiness for and success in beginning reading form a "compound" and when a given element is missing, or lacking in potency, the other elements take on different characteristics.⁴⁸

These recent researches in reading readiness seem to bring the question back to where it was, except that much new knowledge can be brought to bear upon the problem. Mental age alone is not an adequate index to probable success in reading. Consequently, the relation between mental age and reading readiness can hardly be used to justify mental age as a criterion for entrance to first grade. The abilities which children need for success in reading can be learned, and they may be taught in school or in the home. Schools that operate kindergartens have the opportunity to bring some of these experiences to the children before they get into the first grade; others will need to allow time during the first grade for these background activities, which may mean a corresponding adjustment of the reading abilities anticipated by the end of the first grade.

Non-English-speaking beginners create special problems of grouping and progress. For such children there seems to be no practical answer except to provide for the time necessary to have them learn enough English to give the meaningful vocabulary and fluent oral usage needed for successful initial reading experiences. The experience of many school systems shows that it takes at least one semester to give this background in English, many pupils, however, requiring more than one semester. The issue which arises is whether these pupils, starting school with an automatic half-year or year of retardation in store for them, should continue on such retarded status throughout their school careers. If the entire enrollment of a school consists of pupils who started as non-English-speaking beginners, perhaps no serious difficulties are encountered, but such a condition seldom prevails. If the pupils who were retarded because of a language deficiency are grouped with other nonretarded children, then there arise many of the problems of grouping discussed in the preceding chapter. Experience shows that many who are retarded from the beginning because of a language handicap experience sub-

⁴⁷ A. I. Gates, G. L. Bond, and D. H. Russell, *Methods of Determining Reading Readiness* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939), pp. 28-29.

⁴⁸ E. A. Betts, "Factors in Reading Readiness," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 24 (1943), pp. 199-230.

sequent maladjustment and drop out at early ages. Every effort should be exerted to readjust to a normal-progress status those pupils who began with a language deficiency. Many of them, of course, also fall into the category of "not-ready" for reading, even after a minimum amount of English has been learned.

Entrance policies and pupil progress in the primary grades are inextricably associated with curriculum policies. How important reading instruction is in the first grade depends upon the philosophy and purposes of elementary education adopted for a given school. The present trend is definitely in the direction of giving equal emphasis to all four of the major areas of child growth and development in aiding children in their progress toward the general purposes of education. Under this conception mental development is only one of the concerns of the school, and achievement in reading is only one phase of mental development. Looking at reading achievement in this perspective raises the question whether reading is so important as to constitute the major criterion for promotion. Few, if any, persons would deny the importance of the communicative arts (speaking, writing, spelling, reading) in our culture or in the child's educational career, but there is no law anywhere in the universe (except in the promotion standards of schools) which specifies the amount of reading that has to be learned or taught in the first grade. The intention here is not to imply that reading should not be taught as early in a child's school career as he can cope with it successfully or that ability to read well at an early age is not of benefit to the pupil, but merely to call attention to the fact that the standards in reading achievement set for promotion from one primary grade to another are administrative creations and can be changed by the same agent, especially when some of the factors about grouping discussed in the preceding chapter seem to be important for individual cases.

If schools are going to adopt a realistic policy regarding individual differences among entering first-grade children and the varying degrees of readiness for the factors which condition progress in beginning reading, then comparable adjustments will need to be made in the requirements for promotion to the second grade; otherwise many teachers will be assigned an impossible task, namely, teaching curriculum content to pupils who in various ways are unready to master the work. The inevitable results are that many pupils fail and that occasionally the teacher is labeled a failure, when in reality neither pupil nor teacher is primarily at fault. Rather, the failure may be charged to the administration in that its educational machinery is not shaped to harmonize with the educational needs of pupils.

Marked changes in curriculum content may be noted for most schools as children pass from the third to the fourth grade. New subjects are found in the course of study. Learning and school activity in general proceed on a higher plane. The interests of children are broadening and their powers are

extending. Pupils are launching out into the study of a variety of subjects and the school is endeavoring to provide for children wide, rich, and varied experiences in many fields of interest. Reading skills, habits, and abilities definitely become the tools of learning rather than constituting the chief aims of instruction. Many factors suggest that children should have acquired the fundamental reading habits and skills before they enter upon the program of the intermediate grades. Hence some schools have established administrative policies which tend to retain children in the third grade until an adequate foundation in reading has been built. Frequently these policies are applied without reference to the age and maturity of the pupil. In spite of some merits which a plan of this kind may have, it would seem unwise to establish unusual hurdles or a final "catch-all" barrier at the end of the third grade which would tend to retard pupil progress and tend to accumulate retardation at a particular point. It would seem that a better plan is to permit all children to enter Grade 4 and to provide for the poor readers the necessary adaptations and remedial instruction. Teachers at all times will need to be ready to provide for the individual differences of pupils, and it is unlikely that rigidly applied promotion standards at the completion of Grade 3 will reduce materially the need for differentiated instruction.

REORGANIZATION TRENDS IN PRIMARY GRADES

School systems in different parts of the country have been experimenting with various plans for meeting the complicated entrance and progress problems in the primary grades. Some school systems have altered the entrance age to first grade. The variations in this type of approach were discussed in preceding sections of this chapter. The most unique of these plans is illustrated by the monthly admission scheme in South Plainfield, New Jersey.⁴⁹ In this community the entrance age for beginning pupils is set at five years. Children enter school at the beginning of each month during the school year. Careful records are kept of the birth dates of preschool children. Just before each child's birthday the kindergarten in which the child will enroll sends a birthday card and an invitation to come to school on the first day of the ensuing month. In this way the school avoids the mass entry of pupils in September. Each month's newcomers are more easily amalgamated by the children already there. Social adjustment and individual progress are stressed.

Another approach to the problem consists of the establishing of vestibule classes, pre-first grades, or junior first grades for children chronologically old enough to enter first grade but otherwise unready for the first-grade

⁴⁹ H. C. Fries, "A Continuous Progress School," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 119 (July, 1949), p. 52.

curriculum. Such pre-primary classes are common in schools which have many non-English-speaking beginners. As yet there is no research to show whether this practice results in continued overageness for these pupils or whether most of them catch up later with their age mates through double promotions.

A third method of dealing with the problem avoids alterations in entrance ages and delayed progress through vestibule classes. It accepts all children at the established entrance age and endeavors the adjustment to individual differences through major revision of curriculum, method, grouping, promotion, marking, and reporting to parents. The earliest efforts in this direction were made during the middle 1930's. Western Springs, Illinois,⁵⁰ Oakland, Los Angeles, San Diego, Long Beach, and Fresno, California,⁵¹ Baltimore, Maryland,⁵² Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania,⁵³ and Omaha, Nebraska,⁵⁴ are among the cities that pioneered with flexibly organized primary units.⁵⁵ Many of the earlier reorganizations tended to secure flexibility in grouping and continuous progress by establishing 12 or more stages in reading achievement for the three-year period covering Grades 1 through 3. This approach, in the main, was an effort to adjust the child more readily to a fixed curriculum in reading. The chief variation was the length of time it took different children to complete the reading levels. Promotion to the fourth grade was obtained primarily upon the successful completion of all the reading levels.

The more recent reorganization plans reflect the influence of the child development movement. The child's social, physical, emotional, and personality development have been given major attention. Academic progress, especially in reading, has not been overlooked, but is not being given the prominence that it had received earlier. The all-round maturity and development of the child are the major considerations in grouping, instruction, and placement. The underlying principles of this type of reorganization

⁵⁰ L. B. Wheat, "The Flexible Group Progress System," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 38 (November, 1937), pp. 175-183.

⁵¹ Helen Heffernan, "Classification and Promotion Policies in Some City School Systems," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, Vol. 6 (May, 1937), pp. 228-234.

⁵² J. L. Stenquist, "How Baltimore Handles Pupil Promotions," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 27 (January, 1941), pp. 41-44.

⁵³ E. A. Dimmick, "An Appraisal of an Elementary School Reorganization in Terms of Its Effect upon the Children Who Attend It," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 22 (October, 1938), pp. 91-101.

⁵⁴ A. J. Cross, "Omaha Discards Mid-Year Shake-Up System," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 103 (August, 1941), p. 41.

⁵⁵ Other examples are: "Albany Plan of Primary-School Organization," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 36 (February, 1936), pp. 413-416; C. W. Aretz, "Administration of a Program of Continuous Pupil Progress," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 40 (May, 1940), pp. 679-687; V. R. DeLong, "Primary Promotion by Reading Levels," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 37 (December, 1936), pp. 252-253.

have been enumerated by several writers.⁵⁶ The major considerations are these:

1. The idea of "grade standards" in terms of achievement in skill subjects is either abandoned or minimized to the extent that it carries only minor consideration in the grouping and placement of pupils. Groups or classes are organized on the basis of children's all-round maturity. Curriculum content, methods, and materials are adapted to the class and sub-groups within each class so that children may begin where they are and move forward continuously at their individual rates. The emphasis is upon helping each child to grow as much as possible in as many ways as possible without reference to progress made by other individuals. Activities in reading and other skill subjects are adjusted to the maturity and growth rates of individual pupils. Neither teacher nor child is held to arbitrarily set standards which may be too high for some children and too low for others.

2. The membership of classes and sub-groups within classes is kept flexible and fluid so that transfers from group to group and from grade to grade can be made easily at any time. Progress is conceived to be continuous and efforts are made to effect most changes in pupil placement *during* the school year rather than at the end of the year. This type of plan makes it possible to have classes have a members. μ in May or June which will remain essentially the same when the pupils return in September. Although acceleration as well as nonpromotion are discouraged, the plan does not provide for 100 per cent regular promotion for all; some slow growers may spend an extra semester or year in the primary grades, whereas a few fast growers might spend less than the usual number of semesters in these grades. Maximum flexibility in grouping and maximum attention to all-round development should not be confused with, and does not necessarily mean, the so-called "100 per cent promotion for all."

3. The flexible character of grouping and the extensive efforts to adapt instruction to individual differences really results in giving the kindergarten and primary grades all of the characteristics of an ungraded school.⁵⁷ In

⁵⁶ *Pupil Progress in the Elementary Schools of New York State* (Albany, Bureau of Instructional Supervision, New York State Education Department, 1944); Walter A. LeBaron, "Some Practical Techniques in Developing a Program of Continuous Progress in the Elementary School," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 46 (October, 1945), pp. 89-96; Glenn E. Barnett, "The Educational Setting of Early Childhood Education," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, Vol. 17 (February, 1949), pp. 133-138; Emil F. Faith, "Continuous Progress at the Primary Level," *Phi Delta Kappan*, Vol. 30 (May, 1949), pp. 356-359; Albert L. Lindel, "Do You Run a Single Track School?" *School Executive*, Vol. 65 (March, 1946), pp. 53-54; Charles M. Long, "This Matter of Midyear Promotions," *Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University*, Vol. 25 (January, 1949), pp. 24-28; Faith Smither, "What Is a Primary School?" *California Journal of Elementary Education*, Vol. 17 (February, 1949), pp. 139-145.

⁵⁷ Gladys Ridsen, "Joe Wants to Learn," *Ohio Schools*, Vol. 27 (October, 1949), pp. 306-307, 311; Gladys L. Potter, "Making Continuity Possible," *Childhood Education*, Vol. 25 (November, 1948), pp. 128-131; Robert Hill Lane, "Experiments in Re-

order to forestall the reappearance of notions associated with rigidly organized grades some schools label the various classes by the teacher's name, such as Miss Jane's Room or Miss Jane's Group; others use names such as Group I, Group II, and so on; whereas still others use "The Five-Year Olds," "The Five- and Six-Year Olds," or "The Five to Seven Group." The latter names suggest great variability in chronological age to accommodate deviates in maturity without embarrassment. The flexible and ungraded character of the organization has led some writers to call the new organization "the ungraded primary school" or "the primary unit." Sometimes children in such units are given no labels other than that they are in the primary school. One of the variations in grouping is illustrated by the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago in which each of the five primary rooms has children whose chronological ages range from almost six to almost eight years of age.⁵⁸

4. In most reorganized primary units the teachers work together closely so that there is much professional interchange of ideas and cooperation on particular pupils' problems.⁵⁹ Because of the deep concern for continuity in the child's progress, most schools make it possible for the teacher to remain with the same group for two or more years.⁶⁰ The focus on child development, the flexibility of the plan, the easing of tensions and restrictions, and the cooperation among faculty members has made most of the reorganized units a happier place for teachers to work.

5. Nearly all of the primary-school reorganizations that have been reported in the literature have developed very close and extensive working relations with parents. In many instances the program was developed with parent participation in the initial planning, in continuous expansion of the idea, and in evaluation. Extensive parent education seems essential for the establishment and continued success of the idea. Much or all of the reporting to parents is done through individual parent-teacher conferences.

6. Most of the reorganizations have been introduced gradually, involving only one grade or two contiguous grades the first year. The plan was then extended to additional grades as the pupils in the beginning grades

organizing the Primary School," *Childhood Education*, Vol. 15 (February, 1939), pp. 262-271.

⁵⁸ Ada R. Polkinghorne, "Grouping Children in the Primary Grades," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 50 (May, 1950), pp. 502-508; Ada R. Polkinghorne, "Parents and Teachers Appraise Primary Grade Grouping," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 51 (January, 1951), pp. 271-278.

⁵⁹ Five Milwaukee Teachers, "We Plan for Living and Learning," *Childhood Education*, Vol. 26 (September, 1949), pp. 19-24.

⁶⁰ Edith F. Miller, "Two Years with the Same Teacher," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 49 (May-June, 1950), pp. 531-535; Viola Theman, "Continuous Progress in School," *Childhood Education*, Vol. 18 (September, 1941), pp. 21-23; H. G. Walters, "Pupil Progress in the Richmond (Indiana) Schools," *The Teachers College Journal*, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Ind., Vol. 20 (December, 1948), pp. 47-55.

moved up. In Milwaukee the ungraded primary unit was started in one school in 1942. It was carried on there for three years before it was extended to other schools. By 1948 the plan had been extended to 53 schools.⁶¹ Kelly, out of her experience in Milwaukee, made the following recommendations for a reasonably smooth release from the traditional program to the ungraded unit: (a) orient teachers and parents first; explain the program and have it accepted; (b) initiate the program with groups of children coming from the kindergarten; let it progress to higher levels with them; it is unwise and confusing to ungrade children who have been graded; (c) start the program in one school for at least one year; then add others gradually; (d) continue the parent program for parents of each new group coming from the kindergarten and for those new to the neighborhood; and (e) have periodic meetings for teachers and parents; parents' reactions are valuable.

The ungraded primary unit has had rather widespread acceptance. In each state there are a few school systems in which the plan is in operation. In 1948, 17 per cent of the 1598 school systems included in a survey reported one or more schools in each system in which pupils were classified by divisions rather than by grades.⁶²

To what extent ungraded primary units will resolve the complicated grouping and promotion problems in the primary grades is not known. The plan has been in operation long enough in some communities so that comprehensive evaluations could have been made, but no research on this issue had been published at the time of this writing. Local school systems have been slow to undertake thoroughgoing, scientifically ordered appraisal studies. Will the ungraded primary unit result in rigidly administered achievement standards which all pupils must surmount before they will be sent into the intermediate grades? Will the ungraded primary unit actually increase overageness and retardation in the primary grades? If so, will the net result be an increase in overageness and retarded progress in the intermediate grades? Will the establishment of the primary unit create a new artificial barrier, a new gap of inarticulation in the school system?

SPECIAL PROGRESS PROBLEMS IN INTERMEDIATE GRADES

In Grades 4, 5, and 6 promotion problems assume a character somewhat different from that in the primary school. The broader curriculum, the introduction of new subjects, and the shift in emphasis from reading to content

⁶¹ Florence C. Kelly, "Doing Away with Grade Levels," *Journal of the National Education Association*, Vol. 37 (April, 1948), pp. 222-223; Florence C. Kelly, "Ungraded Primary Schools Make the Grade," *Journal of the National Education Association*, Vol. 40 (December, 1951), pp. 645-646.

⁶² "Trends in City-School Organization, 1938 to 1948," *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 27, No. 1 (February, 1949), pp. 18-19.

subjects bring into sharp relief new factors in the determination of pupil progress. This is illustrated in part by the shift in the subjects in which pupils collect the largest number of failing marks. Numerous studies have shown that in the primary grades reading is the subject of greatest difficulty and is usually at the root of nonpromotions in these grades. In the intermediate grades, however, the largest number of failures occur, in order of frequency, in (a) arithmetic, (b) language or English, (c) geography, (d) reading, and (e) history or social studies.

During the past half-century, and more particularly during the last two decades, there has been a concerted movement to reduce nonpromotion throughout the school system, especially in the elementary grades. The fruits of this movement are evident in the decrease in overageness and retardation, in the proportion of children graduating from high school at the expected time, and in the proportion of youth of high school age who are actually attending high school. Out of every 100 pupils in the fifth grade in 1907, only 14 graduated from high school on time in 1914. By 1927-1928 this proportion had increased to 35. In 1948 there were 48 who graduated from high school on time out of every 100 who had been in the fifth grade in 1940-1941. In 1900 only 11 per cent of youth 14 to 17 years of age was actually enrolled in school. By 1930 this percentage had increased to 51 and by 1950 it had risen to 75.⁶³ Both of these sets of figures reveal much progress; they also show that there is still a long way to go before we can say that a full 12-grade school program is the heritage of all.

The trend toward the reduction of retardation has led some schools to adopt a so-called "no failure" policy whereby pupils are moved forward each year from grade to grade, providing for their differences in ability and achievement wherever they are instead of having them repeat grades. This type of policy was being followed in one or more schools in 17 per cent of the 1598 school systems surveyed in 1948.⁶⁴

The movement to reduce retardation has created certain questions and problems. Has the trend toward regular progress for nearly all pupils lowered standards and reduced the achievement of pupils? This question can be answered in the negative. Data presented in an earlier chapter show that children's achievement today is as good as, and in most areas better than, the achievement of pupils in former years. Studies by Cook⁶⁵ and others have shown that the average levels of achievement tend to be higher in schools in which nonpromotion rates are low. Rogers compared pupil failures and achievement in the Chicago schools between 1925 and 1946.⁶⁶

⁶³ U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, *Vitalizing Secondary Education*, Bulletin No. 3 (1951).

⁶⁴ "Trends in City-School Organization, 1938 to 1948," p. 20.

⁶⁵ W. W. Cook, *Grouping and Promotion in the Elementary School* (Minneapolis, University of Minnesota Press, 1941).

⁶⁶ Don C. Rogers, "Success or Failure in School," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 113 (October, 1946), p. 46.

In 272 elementary schools in 1925 the per cent of pupils failed ranged from 0-4 in 39 schools to 35-39 in 1 school; 44 schools had failed over 10 per cent of their pupils. In 1946 the per cent of pupils failed ranged from 0-4 in 248 schools to 20 in 1 school; only 2 schools had failed more than 10 per cent. The Woody-McCall Test in Mixed Fundamentals in Arithmetic, which had been given to all 6A pupils in 1923, was administered to 13,047 6A pupils in June, 1946. In both years the Chicago 6A pupils had an average score which was above the national norm of 6.9; the Chicago median in 1946 was 7.1.

Whether regular progress for nearly all pupils increases the variability of class groups in the intermediate grades and thereby increases the difficulty of teaching is another question frequently raised. Again research has come to our aid. The evidence is fairly clear that variability of class groups is affected very slightly by a school's promotion policies. Teaching problems and the range in individual differences among children are not very different in high than in low nonpromotion schools. It is common knowledge that the range in individual differences increases as children get older. Teachers in intermediate grades in all schools have a more difficult task of adapting instruction to individual needs and finding materials appropriate thereto than teachers in primary grades.

At one time the concluding grade of the elementary school carried a special burden of preparing children for high school or of giving them their last year of schooling. This was at a time when most elementary schools concluded with the eighth grade and many pupils did not go to school beyond the last grade in the elementary school. Since the concluding grade in about two-thirds of the elementary schools in this country is now the sixth grade and practically all pupils continue in school for two or more years beyond the sixth grade, the question arises about the special "preparatory burden" of the sixth grade. Do sixth-grade teachers now feel the pressure which eighth-grade teachers formerly felt? Are junior high schools placing expectations upon the sixth grade similar to the pressures formerly placed upon the eighth grade? Do all sixth-grade teachers promote to the seventh grade without hesitation all pupils whose age and maturity are adequate for placement in the seventh grade even though academic attainments may not be comparable? Unfortunately these questions cannot be answered. Research is needed in this area.

A corollary to the preceding questions pertains to class variability, curricular offering, and teaching problems at the junior-high-school level. Is there greater variability among pupils in junior-high-school classes now than 10 or 20 years ago? Are junior high schools in a position to offer the wide array of differentiated courses suggested by the variability in their student bodies? Are present trends in junior-high-school curriculum revision making it possible to serve the needs of all pupils without providing a wide array of different courses? Most of these questions cannot be an-

swered at the present time, but they do point up one group of articulation problems.

The data which have been cited testify to the progress that has been made in solving the promotion problems in the intermediate grades and articulation between the elementary and the secondary school. A few school systems have applied to the intermediate grades the idea of an ungraded unit previously described for the primary grades. In some of these systems children are classified only as "in the primary school" and as "in the intermediate school." A child thus gets only two formal promotions before entering the secondary school; the first promotion comes when he leaves the primary school and the second one when he leaves the intermediate grades.

Much progress has also been made in helping children to bridge the gap between the elementary and the junior high school.⁶⁷ From school systems all over the country have come narrative accounts of the various activities used to orient elementary-school graduates to the secondary school which they will attend. Junior-high-school principals, counsellors, and students visit the elementary schools in April or May to get acquainted with and inform the sixth graders. Elementary-class groups spend as much as a full day in May visiting in the high school they will attend the next fall. Meetings are held for the parents so that they, too, may learn about the offering and policies of the secondary school. A full-scale orientation program for new students is carried on during the first week of the new school year. Sometimes the orientation program extends for a month or more; home-room and assembly programs and "big-sister" or "big-brother" assignments give continuing assistance as the school year gets under way.

Other practices which tend to improve articulation between elementary and secondary schools are joint curriculum committees, joint faculty meetings, and joint planning for the content and use of cumulative records. One of the best ways of articulating the elementary school more closely with the high school is to send to the high school rather complete information about the pupils who are entering for the first time. If a child has attended a given elementary school for several years, the principal and teachers of that school have had occasion to study him and to know him rather thoroughly. If this understanding of the child could be conveyed to the high school and to all the departmental teachers in his first year at high school, it might help to bridge the gap between the elementary and the high school and assure a more continuous educational growth of the pupil. In the past, high schools have been slow to recognize the value of such continuity of child-accounting data and hence have not solicited the information from the elementary schools. One of the first essentials of a sound program of articulation between the elementary school and the junior high school is the acceptance of a common philosophy of education.

⁶⁷ "Orientation of Pupils for the Secondary School," *The National Elementary Principal*, Vol. 31 (February, 1952).

OTHER GENERALIZATIONS FROM RESEARCH

Certain issues regarding pupil progress merit further elaboration even though some of them were touched upon briefly in the preceding pages. The conclusions which are presented in the paragraphs below are supported adequately by research findings even though the supporting references have been omitted.⁶⁸

Trial promotions. Research dealing with trial promotions is so closely related to studies evaluating nonpromotion that it is difficult to formulate a separate summation of findings. As a rule, trial promotions signify the uncertainty of the judgments on the basis of which promotions are made and, rather than for teachers and principals to accept the responsibility for errors of judgment, the responsibility is thrown upon the child. If after trial the child fails, at least the educators are not to blame, even though admittedly the bases for the decision to demote the child are as subjective and questionable as those used in granting him a trial promotion. Trial promotions represent an open admission that current promotional practices are grossly inadequate in the light of modern educational science.

Since it is frequently embarrassing to demote a pupil, a trial promotion usually means a permanent promotion. Such studies as have been made show that the majority of pupils promoted on trial retain their status in the new grade.

The value of nonpromotion. Failure, nonpromotion, asking children to repeat the same grade once or oftener has been practiced almost universally by schools from time immemorial in the belief that staying in the same grade for another term would result in real gains for the child. The sincerity of teachers and administrators cannot be questioned on this point. It is now evident that practically all of the notions previously held about the values of nonpromotion or the motivating value of the threat of failure have been exploded. Out of a group of repeaters, about 20 per cent will do better than they did the preceding term, about 40 per cent will show no change, and about 40 per cent will actually do worse. If doubtful cases are divided into two groups appropriately matched on essential items, and one group is promoted and the other group is held back to repeat the grade, several studies have shown that the achievement of the promoted group, as measured by standardized tests, is equal to or greater than the achievement of the group held back. If the objective of the school is to promote the optimum educational development of pupils, nonpromotion is not the way to get it. As far as personality adjustment is concerned, group studies show that the adjustment of pupils of low achievement is not more satisfactory when they are retained in grade groups more nearly representative of their

⁶⁸ A detailed list of references may be found in Henry J. Otto, *Elementary School Organization and Administration*, 2d ed. (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1944), pp. 232-236.

levels of achievement. Numerous cases are on record which show the contribution which nonpromotion, especially repeated nonpromotion, has made to the personality maladjustment of individual cases.

Acceleration. Acceleration, also called double promotion or the skipping of one or more grades during a child's school career, has been practiced to some extent by nearly all schools. It is one of the extensively used devices for adjusting the school to superior pupils. The number of children affected, however, is not as large as one might suppose. In general only about 4 per cent of children enrolled in elementary schools experience acceleration. The proportion of accelerated pupils increases grade by grade from the primary to the upper grades. The percentage of accelerated boys is less than the percentage of accelerated girls. The percentage of accelerated pupils is larger in semiannual-promotion than in annual-promotion schools.

Whether acceleration is beneficial or detrimental to children has been a moot question in education for many years. The *pro* and *con* issues have centered upon subsequent achievement and matters of mental hygiene and social adjustment of children who have been accelerated one or more terms in the elementary school. Reported studies show that in general teachers are not opposed to the acceleration of superior pupils, provided the amount of acceleration is not excessive, and provided those pupils who are to skip one or more grades or half grades are studied carefully to make sure that they are qualified to enter the academic and social requirements of a higher grade. Unmistakable and general have been the educational gains for many children who have been accelerated. In terms of success in high school as measured by teachers' marks, in gains in education or achievement quotient, in success and adjustment in high school and later life, the majority of accelerated pupils do not appear to suffer detrimental effects. In spite of these facts, there is a growing sentiment among educators that little is to be gained by hurrying children through school too rapidly. Increasing efforts at curriculum enrichment reduce the need for acceleration.⁶⁹

Bolstering standards by high nonpromotion rates. Teachers and parents have commonly believed that high standards of achievement prevailed in a school in which the nonpromotion rate was high and that low standards were characteristic of schools in which failures were few and regular progress was accorded practically all children. Research has demonstrated that there is little if any relationship between the standards of a school and the rate of nonpromotion. In fact, the evidence shows that the average levels of achievement tend to be higher in the schools in which the nonpromotion rates are low. When there are many repeaters in any one grade, there are likely to be more overage, mentally and academically retarded pupils in the class than when the percentage of regular progress has been high. Hence the achievement averages tend to be lower in schools having many repeaters

⁶⁹ For a full discussion of the theory, trend, and research, see Monroe, ed., *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, *op. cit.*, pp. 507-509.

in each grade and the competition for the regular progress pupils in such classes is no higher, or possibly even lower, than in classes not loaded with large numbers of repeaters. Research has demonstrated rather clearly that schools with a relatively high percentage of failures tend to have a relatively high proportion of overage and slow-learning pupils in each grade (especially in the midyear entering groups in semiannual promotion schools); that in schools with high nonpromotion rates the average intelligence of the classes and the achievement averages of the grades tend to be lower than in schools with more lenient promotion standards; that when the achievements of pupils of equal chronological age and mental age in the schools with high and lower percentages of nonpromotion are compared, no differences, or statistically insignificant differences, are found.

Reducing class variability by high nonpromotion rates. Another belief commonly held is that if all or practically all pupils are promoted each year, the range of abilities and achievements will be very high, at least in the intermediate and upper grades, and thus enhance the difficulty of instruction and the difficulty of meeting individual differences. Some teachers object strenuously to receiving pupils who have not met the standards for admission to that grade. The hypothesis is that nonpromotion is a technique for increasing the homogeneity of class groups. The evidence from research does not support this hypothesis. Several studies have shown that when the variability of classes is compared with respect to mental age and achievement as measured by standardized tests, there is no significant difference between schools of high or low nonpromotion rates. Neither do any significant differences exist with reference to the number or degree of instructional adjustments which should be made within classes to meet individual differences. In most schools children could be regrouped to eliminate practically all overageness, retardation, or acceleration without appreciably altering the variability of classes or the difficulty of instruction. By failing slow-learning pupils a school cannot increase its grade achievement averages or reduce the variation of achievement found in individual classes. Cook very aptly points out: ⁷⁰

As far as achievement and personality development are concerned, the crucial issue appears to be not whether the slow-learning pupil is passed or failed but how adequately his needs are met wherever he is placed. No promotion practice, be it universal promotion or the maintenance of high achievement standards, really comes to grips with the vital problem of educational and personality adjustment, with the problem of furnishing each teacher suitable instructional materials, teaching procedures, and point of view to enable her to cope with a range of ability of from six to ten years in her class.

Annual vs. semiannual promotion. Promotion intervals of less than one year were introduced to mitigate some of the evils of the annual promotion plan. At present the semiannual plan is represented in about 99 per cent of

⁷⁰ *Op. cit.*, p. 49.

school systems that do not promote annually. During the years the proponents of each of the two major plans have accumulated a long list of advantages and disadvantages of annual or semiannual promotions.⁷¹ For every advantage of the semiannual plan there is at least one corresponding item which has been listed as a disadvantage of the annual plan; and for every disadvantage of the semiannual plan there is at least one corresponding item recorded as an advantage of annual promotions. As far as arguments are concerned, the contest seems to end in a draw. Evidence from research does not give conclusive answers either. As far as the age-grade status of children is concerned, there is nearly twice as much overageness in semiannual as in annual promotion schools; there is less underageness in the semiannual promotion schools; and there is a slight advantage in the percentage of normal-age children in the semiannual promotion schools. As far as the age homogeneity of children in each of the grades is concerned, neither promotion plan has any advantage over the other. On the progress of children through the grades the evidence slightly favors the annual promotion scheme in that a smaller percentage of pupils are retarded, a smaller percentage experience nonpromotion, and a smaller percentage are accelerated. The amount of time lost per retarded pupil is greater in annual than in semiannual schools. Neither promotion plan has any significant advantage in the age homogeneity of kindergarten or first-grade entrants or in the average age at which children graduate from the sixth or from the eighth grade. Annual promotion makes for better articulation between elementary and secondary schools. Although some of the differences in these comparisons do not carry statistical significance, it seems that a slight majority of the statistical evidence on those factors which seem to be closely associated with the nature of the classroom educational setting favors the annual-promotion plan. The trend at present, wherever changes are being made, is toward annual promotions or to a flexible, irregular plan.

CUMULATIVE RECORDS

In the past, school records consisted mostly of teachers' marks and attendance. Most states require the school to keep what has been called a "permanent record card" which is the official record the school has of the child's attendance and work taken. The permanent record card, which satisfies most legal issues in which the child's school attendance has to be certified, is limited in the data recorded thereon and is inadequate for the kind of teacher guidance expected in the modern school. Ayer stipulated five basic forms which are essential to all modern child accounting systems. These forms are: (1) *The Pupil's Cumulative Record*, (2) *The Permanent Office Record*, (3) *The Teacher's Class Book or Register*, (4) *The Census-*

⁷¹ These arguments are summarized in Department of Superintendence of the N.E.A., *Five Unifying Factors in American Education*, op. cit., pp. 68-73.

Registration Card, and (5) *The Pupil's Report Card*.⁷² In recent years practically all writers in elementary education as well as in child accounting have stressed the importance of cumulative records, the significant role of the teacher in gathering cumulative data about individual pupils, and the varied uses which should be made of such information.

Cumulative records consist of three main types: (1) the cumulative record card, (2) the behavior journal or diary, and (3) the cumulative folder.⁷³ The cumulative record card usually contains the basic census data, record of attendance, information about the child's brothers and sisters, parents, home environment, health data, individual test records, teachers' marks (if any are given in the school), special talents and interests, and special notes on conduct and school citizenship. Recent administrative and teaching trends require extensive developmental data. It is important, therefore, that as many as possible of the objective measures of growth and achievement which are gathered regularly be recorded in age and grade equivalents as well as in the form of raw scores.⁷⁴

The behavior journal consists of one or more sheets of paper on which the teacher writes anecdotal records. These consist of a series of notes on exactly what a child said or did in concrete situations. As successive observations are accumulated, the journal contains a variety and continuity of information which yields a picture of the child's behavior patterns, his development in various directions, and his interests, attitudes, strengths, and problems. Each anecdotal entry should be dated so that the child's changing role and behavior may be observed over a period of time. Anecdotal entries should be impersonal and objective notations on incidents and events that have significant bearing on development and behavior. Most teachers need help in selecting significant items for journal entries as well as help in proper phrasing of the notations.⁷⁵

The cumulative folder may consist of one or several folders, usually made of manila tag. In some schools the permanent record card is printed on a folder and thus serves a dual purpose. Such a dual purpose folder usually does not work well because the folder wears out too rapidly if it is really

⁷² Ayer, *Practical Child Accounting*, *op. cit.*, p. 8. See also National Committee on Cumulative Records, *Handbook of Cumulative Records*, U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin No. 5 (1944).

⁷³ Ruth Strang, *Reporting to Parents* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947), p. 65.

⁷⁴ One method of securing developmental ages is described in Willard C. Olson, *Child Development* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1949), pp. 174-177.

⁷⁵ Arthur E. Traxler, *The Nature and Use of Anecdotal Records*, rev. ed. (New York, Educational Records Bureau, 1949); *Helping Teachers Understand Children* (Washington, American Council on Education, 1945); Arthur E. Hamalainen, *An Appraisal of Anecdotal Records*, Contributions to Education, No. 891 (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943); Judith I. Krugman and J. Wayne Wrightstone, *A Guide to the Use of Anecdotal Records* (New York, Bureau of Reference, Research, and Statistics, Board of Education of the City of New York, 1949).

used for folder purposes. A better plan is to have the data desired for a permanent record placed on a card appropriately printed for that purpose and then to file the card in a folder into which are also placed other personal data, such as the summary sheets of mental and achievement tests, behavior journal records, and any other significant and confidential information about each child.

Some school systems have found it very helpful to accumulate three folders for each pupil. In one of them would be built up permanent record and other confidential data as described in the preceding paragraph. This folder is kept in the office or preferably in the teacher's room but its contents are accessible only to the professional staff of the school. The other two folders are developed and kept in the classroom. One of them is used to assemble samples of the child's work over a period of at least three years. Each teacher adds samples of handwriting, composition, arithmetic, art, and other pupil products at the beginning and near the end of each school year. The contents of this folder are used for parent conferences so that parents may be shown visual illustrations of the child's progress. The third folder is used for collecting samples of a pupil's work during the term. By the end of a three-months' period this folder may contain two or three dozen samples of the child's work. This folder, too, is used in appraising the child's progress and in reporting to the parent. The teacher and the child cooperate in building up both of these folders and in preparing an exhibit of the child's work as part of getting ready for the conference with the parent. Conference time or reporting time is thus anticipated as a joint activity of pupil and teacher.

AN INTEGRATED GROUPING, PROMOTION, AND REPORTING PLAN

At the beginning of Chapter 5 it was pointed out that grouping, appraising children's development, pupil progress, and reporting to parents were inseparable aspects of the one large problem of organizing class groups so that children's development could be fostered in the soundest and most practical ways. The only justification for allocating the discussion to two separate chapters was the fact that the issues and practices were too extensive to include in a single chapter. The paragraphs which follow represent an effort to pull together into one coherent whole the highlights of the best theory and practice discussed in this and the preceding chapter. The method chosen for doing this is a description of practices as they prevail at the time of this writing in the Casis Elementary School in Austin, Texas. No doubt any one of several hundred other elementary schools in the United States could have been chosen for this illustration. The chief reason for choosing the Casis School is the writer's intimate familiarity with the program, having served as a consultant to the school over a period of several years.

Coordination of all aspects of the problem. The Casis School program endeavors to achieve a high degree of coordination between the generalizations about children's development, the objectives sought by the school, the management of textbooks and instructional supplies, the grouping and placement of pupils, the procedures used in inventorying and appraising children's development, record keeping, and reporting to parents. The purposes of education are viewed as directional goals and not as minimum essentials. The emphasis throughout is to have each child begin where he is and to move forward in accordance with his capabilities and maturity. Classroom provisions for meeting individual differences are facilitated by flexibility in the use of textbooks and services from the centralized library.

Grouping pupils. Grouping into class sections throughout the school is based on certain general principles. These are supplemented with some specifics especially pertinent to grouping in kindergarten and first grade and another list especially pertinent in the remaining grades.

I. General principles to be considered in grouping at all grade levels.

- A. The plan of grouping children should provide for harmonious adjustment of the child in all phases of his development.
- B. The plan should provide for the grouping of children with sufficient differences to insure group complexity. The children should be enough alike, however, to have similar needs and to be able to work together harmoniously.
- C. Instead of promulgating the idea that the child is in a "low ability" or "high ability" group, the plan of grouping should encourage the conception that the child is in the group in which he can work best, the group most individually challenging and satisfying to him, and the one to which he can make the most worthwhile contribution.
- D. The plan of grouping should provide opportunities for the child to learn to live with mutual satisfaction with his neighbors.
- E. The plan of grouping should insure the child's development of a wholesome personality in order that he may live happily with himself.
- F. The plan of grouping should facilitate a normal amount of success on the part of every child; it should provide opportunity for each child to succeed in terms of his own abilities without unfavorable comparison with others.
- G. The plan of grouping should place a child in a group with children of similar chronological age, physical development, and social maturity, but occasional opportunities should make it possible for each child to work with children older and younger than himself.
- H. The plan of grouping should provide for the best development of academic progress and mental acumen in each child.
- I. The plan of grouping should be such as to promote and facilitate the teacher's knowing intimately all the children she teaches.

- J. The plan of grouping should be flexible and adjustable, and should allow for individual changes when needed. Boundaries between groups should be overlapping and not rigidly fixed.
 - K. At all times each child should find himself in a class group in which he has opportunities to excel, to be excelled, to be a leader, and to be a follower. Group situations and activities from day to day and week to week should provide a balanced interplay of leading and following. Excesses of any one role provide an unwholesome environment for desirable character, personality, and social development.
- II. The basic criterion in grouping is *the individual in relationship to the group*.
- III. Detailed considerations for grouping in kindergarten and first grade.
- A. Physical factors:
 1. What is the status of the child's physical maturation? Is he similar to the group in height and weight? Does his muscular co-ordination indicate that his physical functions are similar to those of his group?
 2. What is his chronological age?
 3. Is his general health good, fair, or poor?
 4. Is his vision normal?
 5. Is his hearing normal?
 6. Does he have normalcy of speech organs?
 7. Does the child have a physical handicap?
 - a. Is he in a group where this handicap will count least against him?
 - b. Does he have special talents which could be developed in this group?
 - B. Personality factors:
 1. What are his objective attitudes toward himself?
 - a. Does he talk only of mother, father, baby brother, and his pets?
 - b. Does he demand constant attention to what he is doing?
 - c. Does he prefer to work and play alone?
 - d. Does he cry often?
 2. Are this child's natural relationships with other people satisfactory?
 - a. Does he play with only one or two children?
 - b. Does he talk of his neighbors, friends, and playmates?
 - c. What is his attitude toward this group?
 - d. What is his attitude toward the teacher? Does he look to her as a helper? Is he afraid of her?
 - e. Does he have a chance to excel in this group? Can he be excelled?
 - f. Does he have an opportunity to be an ordinary member of this group?
 - g. Are his social needs similar to those of this group?
 - h. Are his interests similar to the interests of other children in the group, yet sufficiently different for him to have oppor-

tunities to contribute to the wholesome complexity of this group?

- i.* Does he respond willingly or does he wait to be persuaded?
 - j.* Do special friends in the group have good or bad influence?
 - k.* What are the out-of-school activities of the child?
 - l.* Are his emotions adequately controlled for his age?
3. What are the parent-child-teacher relationships?
 - a.* What is the parent's point of view (attitude) toward placement?
 - b.* If the child has special characteristics, what does the parent expect of him? Of the teacher?

C. Mental maturity:

1. Is the child's mental maturity such that he can be expected to be happy in this group?
 - a.* What is his score on the Reading Readiness Test? (First Grade)
 - b.* What is the teacher's rating of this child's mental development?
 - c.* What is the parent's expectancy of this child?
2. What is this child's stage of reading readiness? (First Grade)
 - a.* Has he had rich, real, and varied experiences?
 - b.* Does he want to read?
 - c.* Does he enunciate and pronounce accurately?
 - d.* Does he have the ability to keep a series of events in mind?
 - e.* Does he have the ability to organize ideas and to express them in sentence form?
 - f.* Has the child an adequate speaking vocabulary?
 - g.* Does he make correct use of simple English sentences?
 - h.* Does he have the ability to do problematic thinking?
 - i.* Does he speak English?
 - j.* Has he established number concepts?
 - (1) Can he count?
 - (2) Can he enumerate?
 - (3) Does he use such words as "few," "several," and so forth, correctly?
 - k.* Does he follow directions adequately for his age level?

D. Academic maturity:

1. What is this child's previous school experience?
 - a.* Nursery school
 - b.* Kindergarten
 - c.* Home training
 - d.* One year in school
 - e.* Child care center
 - f.* Day-care center
2. Was his previous school experience irregular or regular?
3. Why was he placed in these schools?
 - a.* Mother works?
 - b.* For adjustment with other children?
 - c.* To be able to enter second grade?

4. What is his reading readiness status?
5. How well is he adjusted to school situations?

IV. Supplementary considerations for grouping in Grades two to six.

A. Physical development:

1. Does the child's general physical maturity come within reasonable range of the average physical maturity of this group?
2. If the child is placed in this group, can he participate in the physical activities engaged in by these children?
3. Is the child's chronological age within reasonable range of the median chronological age of this group?
4. Is the child's physical stature such that he will take his place as an ordinary member of this group without being conspicuous?
5. If the child has a physical defect or general ill health, will this handicap count least against him in this group?

B. Wholesome personality development:

1. If the child is placed in this group will there be various opportunities for him to excel, to be excelled, and to take his place as an ordinary member of the group?
2. Will he find the group socially stimulating?
3. Will he feel adequate to the probable demands of this group?
4. Will the experiences within the group satisfy the needs of his growing personality?
5. Are there children in this group with whom he should or should not be placed because of friendships, social background, or behavior problems?
6. Will he have a satisfactory status among his fellow students, or the possibility of achieving such peer status, so that he is liked, needed, and wanted by them?
7. Is the teacher of this group one under whose guidance the child will work satisfactorily?
8. If the child's present status is such as to suggest doubt regarding any of the preceding seven items, is it likely that, with the teacher's help, the child can achieve satisfactory relationship to the group?

C. Mental maturity:

1. Will the child have opportunity to work successfully with other children representing a wide range of mental ages?
2. Will the teacher have opportunity to examine critically the child's mental maturity test results to ascertain special strengths and weakness?
3. Will it be possible to adapt instruction to the child's mental ability?
4. Does the parent's evaluation of this child's mental ability suggest that he be in this group?

D. Academic maturity:

1. Is the teacher familiar with the child's strengths and weakness as revealed by observation and the results of standardized achievement tests?

2. Are sufficient materials available on the child's interest and achievement level to provide a continuous and stimulating growth in learning?
3. Is the child confident that he has a place in the group and that he can share with and receive from his classmates?
4. In the opinion of the parent will the child make satisfactory progress in this group?

Progress through the grades. Promotion in the usual sense of the word has disappeared from the scene. Children are placed in the different age and maturity groups in accordance with the criteria outlined for grouping. In other words, children progress through school on the basis of a continuous regrouping plan.

Children who enter first grade on the basis of chronological age have varying degrees of readiness for reading. Insufficient progress in reading ability has been the chief cause of nonpromotion in the first grade. The present trend is to give equal emphasis to all four major areas of child development. It is felt that achievement in reading should not be the major criterion for promotion when pupils progress from one class group to another. When a group of children is received by a teacher, she will have to adjust the curriculum and methods to suit the needs of her class.

It is further recommended that all children, regardless of academic achievement, be admitted to junior high school after having spent six years in the elementary school (seven years if one year of kindergarten be included or if a child has been retained because of general immaturity). In only rare exceptions will a child over 12 years of age be retained in elementary school. This plan will necessitate procedures in the junior high school to provide for all types and abilities of children who enter junior high school. If both schools have the same philosophy of education, this plan will be successful.

A continuous grouping plan should be flexible so that adjustments may be made any time during the school year that a change would seem advisable. Each class group should be studied continuously to determine whether or not the individuals in that group are properly placed. This procedure would eliminate most of the hurried, mass changes at the end of each school year.

In the Casis School the conventional grade labels are retained since it doesn't make too much difference what labels you use; it is the practice which counts. The great majority of children move forward from year to year with their age groups. Practically all shifts from one section to another at the same grade level or from one grade level to another are made *during* the school year so that the end of the year has no special connotation as far as next year's placement is concerned. Class sections for the ensuing year are planned before the end of the current year so that individual adjustments in section assignments can be made while teacher's familiarity with

individual cases is greatest. Chronological age is only one factor in placement. Each grade level permits a reasonable range in chronological age so that unusually mature or unusually immature pupils can be accommodated without embarrassment to pupil or parents. Figure 17 illustrates the approximate chronological age ranges for the various grades. Note the overlapping between each two levels.

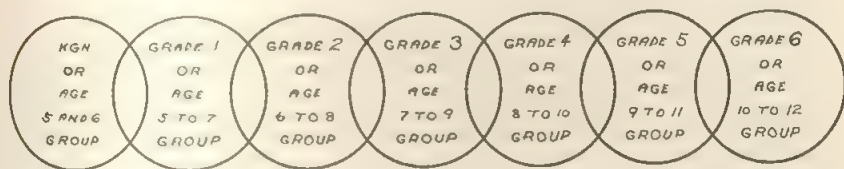


FIG. 17: Approximate chronological age ranges for each grade in a school which substitutes a plan of continuous grouping for annual or semiannual promotions.

Cumulative records. A plan such as that followed in the Casis School requires that certain types of data be gathered regularly on all pupils. Certain records, such as census and registration, have only a temporary or "current year" usage. The number and variety of these in the Casis School would be similar to those used in most other schools. The *cumulative* record consists of a card and three folders. The cumulative record card actually consists of two 8½" by 11" cards printed on both sides. The four sides of these two cards provide spaces for recording (1) identifying data, (2) school history, (3) testing record, (4) health record, (5) social and personal history, (6) developmental factors, (7) cumulative graphic presentation of developmental data, (8) special abilities and interests, (9) citizenship traits, (10) significant accomplishments, and (11) significant personality traits. These cards are kept up to date and are stored in a confidential folder in which the summary pages of test results and behavior journals are also filed. The other two folders contain samples of the pupil's work as described in a preceding section of this chapter.

In order to have a gradually expanding body of information on how the child is growing up, certain measures are taken regularly at six-month intervals. These are height, weight, dentition, strength of grip, and achievement in all the areas appropriate for the different grade levels. A reading readiness test is given at the beginning of the first grade. Standardized tests in reading are given at the end of the first grade and in October and April in second and third grades. A comprehensive standardized achievement test is given in October and April of each year in Grades four through six. Group mental tests are given in Grades two and five and to all transfers-in each year. In a small percentage of cases the group mental test is followed by an individual test. Raw scores, developmental ages, and grade equivalents are recorded for all the measures for which conversion tables are available. The graph on the cumulative record card is expanded at six-month intervals to

portray a visual perspective of the unfolding growth pattern of the individual. For those who do not attend kindergarten the information about the family is obtained by first grade teachers who visit in each first grader's home during the first six weeks of the school year; first grade classes meet during forenoons only during this period to permit teacher time for home visits. In other grades home visits are made on an individual need basis or upon invitation from the parents.

All three of the folders which comprise the cumulative record system are stored in the classrooms during the school year and in the school vault during the summer months. Each classroom is equipped with a four-drawer steel file with lock. Locating the cumulative records in the classrooms makes them most accessible to teachers who need to use them regularly.

Home and school relations. During the year there are many and varied contacts between each teacher and the parents of the children in each class. Some of the P.T.A. meetings each year are by home rooms, thus giving each teacher an opportunity to describe phases of the school's program to groups of parents. The plan of reporting to parents consists of three major activities. The first of these is a group meeting in September of all parents by home rooms. This meeting gives all parents an opportunity early in the school year to get acquainted with the teacher. It gives the teacher an opportunity to meet fathers and mothers, to explain certain school policies to parents, and to give parents an overview of the anticipated year's work. Parents are shown copies of the textbooks and other instructional resources available for the children's use. Each year the faculty of the school prepares an agenda of the items to be covered at this initial meeting of parents.

The second phase of the reporting plan consists of the parent visit and observation in the classroom and the individual parent-teacher conference. The teacher and the pupil join in an invitation to parents to visit school on a designated date for at least half a day. Preferably this visit should precede the conference. Most parents come on the same day that the conference is scheduled. In order to assure themselves that the best kind of parent conferences will be held, the members of the faculty prepared the following outline to guide themselves:

A. Before the conference:

1. Read D'Evelyn, Katherine E., *Individual Parent-Teacher Conferences*. (This is a must.)
2. Familiarize yourself with all information regarding the parent and child. Review child's medical record.
3. Have child arrange work folder in chronological order. Do this the day you call mother for conference so if you are short on recent samples of work you will still have time to get more.
4. Review the child's folder before the conference and make notes for the conference. Plan carefully.
5. Read carefully pp. 37-44 of Bulletin No. 5003, *Grouping, Marking, and Reporting to Parents*.

6. Consider each child's social, emotional, and physical development in relation to educational achievement.

B. The conference:

1. Relax and listen to what the parent has to say.
2. Find out how parent feels about child before you present any problems child might have at school.
3. Pick up constructive ideas in parent's contribution.
4. Convince the parent of your sincere desire and need of his help.
5. Make positive comments.
6. Withhold information which a parent might use to taunt the child until you become better acquainted with the parent.
7. It never pays to try to "teach" in a conference.
8. Listen!
9. Express honest appreciation of child.
10. Accept anything that the parent tells you without showing surprise or disapproval. Keep own emotions out of conference.
11. Give the parent some *definite* information about his child's progress in the subject matter areas. Show sample of work.
12. Discuss child's social, emotional, and physical growth.
13. Accept any criticism about the school without becoming defensive.
14. Close the conference in a constructive, pleasant or forward-going note, such as a plan for a further consultation or a statement of a plan for cooperative action.

C. After the conference:

1. Observe the special points parent has mentioned.
2. Don't overlook the services of special teachers.
3. Make a note to hold an early conference with parents of children making slow progress in any of the areas of school life.

D. Points to consider in the parent conference regarding social and emotional development.

1. Relationships with other children
 - (1) Likes others
 - (2) Is well-liked
 - (3) Has developed status in the group
2. Work and study habits
 - (1) Gets to work promptly
 - (2) Gives attention to work until it is completed
 - (3) Continues to try even though work is difficult
 - (4) Works independently
 - (5) Holds to high standards of work—is accurate, neat, thorough, and works as fast as possible
 - (6) Talks and thinks clearly
 - (7) Accepts criticism and tries to improve
3. Courtesy and consideration
 - (1) Is courteous
 - (2) Is thoughtful of others
 - (3) Avoids saying or doing things which annoy or hurt others
 - (4) Is attentive when someone else is talking
 - (5) Waits his turn in class and on the playground
 - (6) Talks and laughs quietly

4. Dependability

- (1) Holds to school and room standards whether teacher is present or not
- (2) Does what should be done even though it requires special effort
- (3) Can be depended upon to carry out what he promises to do
- (4) Is truthful
- (5) Assumes and carries out responsibilities

5. Cooperation

- (1) Thinks in terms of group needs instead of self
- (2) Takes active part in group work and play
- (3) Works and plays agreeably with others

6. Initiative, self reliance, leadership

- (1) Is resourceful in planning activities for himself and for the group and in carrying out plans
- (2) Assumes the right kind of leadership and follow-ship when opportunities occur
- (3) Finds of own accord information and materials needed
- (4) Uses leisure time to good advantage
- (5) Has courage to make right choices and stick to them

7. Self control

- (1) Avoids unnecessary talking
- (2) Does things in an orderly way
- (3) Doesn't quarrel or fight for small causes
- (4) Avoids complaining about little things
- (5) Isn't easily upset, angered, afraid
- (6) Faces facts and problems squarely

8. Obedience and promptness

- (1) Comes to school on time
- (2) Responds promptly and willingly to directions from teachers and group leaders
- (3) Holds to group standards for halls, classrooms, lunchroom and playground

9. Thrift and school service

- (1) Takes good care of books, school material, furniture and building
- (2) Works unselfishly for the good of the school

10. Security

- (1) Feels secure at home
- (2) Feels secure at school

E. Points to consider in physical development.

The close relationship between physical development and social and emotional development might necessitate the three being discussed at the same time. As a safe-guard against neglecting this area, however, the following suggestions are made:

1. Getting information from the parent concerning the child's physical welfare and history, plus the parent's attitude toward these facts, is of great value to the teacher
2. Height and weight records
3. Evidences of fatigue, vitality, or nervousness
4. Lunchroom habits—appetite, food intake, manners

5. Participation in physical education

- (1) Participates willingly and happily
- (2) Is not afraid of being hurt, but avoids unnecessary roughness
- (3) Practices good sportsmanship
- (4) Is developing better muscular coordination

Invariably some parents ask very pointed questions pertaining to issues on which the school needs to establish definite policy. Some parents may want to know the child's I.Q. and mental age, his reading age in months, or the grade equivalent of his achievement test score. On these issues each school will have to determine its own policies. At the Casis School the detailed results of mental and achievement tests are not given to parents. Because of undue significance attached by many parents to intelligence test results and because of the limitations of tests and the testing program feasible in most schools, it is believed unwise to give out the specifics of test results. These findings are retained as confidential information for the teacher. However, since in some cases progress in academic fields in relation to ability is difficult to discuss with parents without some reference to mental maturity, it seems essential that parents be given fairly definite information about the maturity level to which the child's general intelligence has developed. In such instances the following type of statement is made: "Tests given by the school show that at the present time Jack's level of mental maturity is slightly over seven years. Our tests and observations also show that his over-all achievement is slightly more than seven years. One could hardly expect his level of achievement in the academic fields to have developed to a level higher than that which his mental maturity has reached. Therefore, when we view his academic achievement in comparison with his mental maturity we can conclude that his academic progress is really very commendable."

Usually parents want to know how the child's achievement in academic fields compares with standards for the grade or year in school in which the child happens to be. Efforts are made to focus the parents' consideration upon the progress which the child has made in terms of his own past record on the assumption that the parents' concern should be with the development of the individual rather than with how others are doing. If parents persist in pressing the comparative aspect, two kinds of answers are given by teachers in the Casis School. If the parent wants to know the grade equivalent of the child's achievement, the teacher's reply, based upon the results of standardized tests, would be that "Jack's over-all achievement in the academic fields is approximately equal to the national average for the beginning, or middle, or latter part of the third grade (or whatever the grade equivalent happened to be)."

Sometimes parents want to know specifically how the child compares with other children in his particular group or classroom. If possible, they should be helped to understand that it is not fair to the child because he is actually

in that group purely by accident. If his parents had happened to live in some other part of the United States, he would have been in an entirely different group. Therefore, if we know how he compares with children from all over the nation, that is fairer to the child than to see how he compares with only his small group or class. If the parent insists, as happens in some cases, on knowing how the child stands in relation to his own class, the teacher is forced to give some other sort of answer. If this happens, the teacher may say that the child is doing as well as, not as well as, or better than the average in the class.

The third part of the plan of reporting to parents consists of a check list sent home to parents via the children at mid-term and again at the close of the school year. This might be considered as a written report. Sometimes this written report is accompanied by another check list on which the child has registered his own self-appraisal. Occasionally a teacher will engage the whole class in drafting a letter describing the activities in which the class has engaged during the past month or more. Each child then carries his own copy of the letter home to his parents.

The written report which is sent home twice a year has the following statement on the front page:

This report is an attempt to show you the individual progress your child has made in the different fields of learning. Progress is measured in terms of the individual and not in terms of a class average.

It is believed that the social and emotional aspects of development can be reported best in personal conferences with you. Therefore, two private conferences are scheduled each year. Also, you have been invited to visit school, observe the class at work, and to discuss problems with the teacher.

The school's appraisal of a child's progress in the subject fields is based upon careful observation of the child's interest and effort, habits and attitudes in work and play, his general maturity, and the results of standardized and teacher-made tests.

On the bottom half of the front page is a summary statement of the school's objectives. This statement was the result of a cooperative faculty-parent project. The second page of the written report is a check list in which approximately 20 items are grouped under such headings as language arts, arithmetic, science-social studies, fine arts, and health. The check list is preceded by the following statement:

Report of Pupil Progress. The descriptive statements below represent desired goals of pupil achievement. To the right is given the school's estimate of your child's progress in achieving these goals according to our understanding of your child's ability and maturity.

Checks appear after items in which the child's progress is in accord with his ability and maturity. *Items not checked are those in which the child is making limited progress and in which the school is making special effort to help the child achieve satisfactory progress.*

The last page of the written report provides spaces for narrative comments by the teacher and the parent.

General statement. In appraising the descriptive account which has been given of the grouping, promotion, and reporting to parents plan in the Casis School, the reader should keep in mind the location of the school and the clientele it serves. All the children come from English speaking homes. I.Q.'s of children range from 80 to 175, with the average above 110. The family breadwinners are engaged mostly in business and professional pursuits. Less than one-fourth of the mothers are engaged in gainful employment. Most of the parents are eager for their children's success and about 98 per cent are able to come to school for the parent-teacher conferences. In a small proportion of cases the fathers or both parents come for the conferences.

The kind of school and its neighborhood are important factors in choosing reporting practices. Techniques which are feasible in one locality may not be suitable in others. The same underlying principles should be applied but the procedures will have to be adapted to the local situation.

THE PRINCIPAL'S AND TEACHERS' RELATIONS TO PROMOTION PROBLEMS

The discussion of issues in this chapter and the preceding one should leave the impression that the problems associated with grouping, marking, and reporting to parents are numerous and complex. Since school practices in these areas touch children, parents, and the total school program in such vital ways, it is probably safe to say that grouping, appraising and reporting children's progress represent the inner heart-beats of the school. The determination of fundamentally sound policies and practices that are consistent with sound psychology and philosophy *and* feasible in the local situation is a genuinely difficult task. Since local conditions vary from one school system to another and from one school to another within the same system, it seems unwise to recommend procedures which should be applied uniformly on a national or even a state-wide basis. The task must be faced and resolved in each school system.

Several conditions must prevail if grouping and reporting practices are to operate successfully in a given school. The entire scheme of grouping, marking, promotion, and reporting to parents must be educationally sound and the several phases of this problem must be consistent with each other. In other words, there must be internal consistency among the different phases. Policies and practices in grouping and reporting must be consistent with curricular and instructional practices. Teachers must be thoroughly conversant with the underlying philosophy and psychology, and skilled in the techniques required to operate the plan. Skill in the operation of the plan includes understanding of and competence in public relations.

The preceding comments identify the intimate relationships which the principal and teachers have with this aspect of school work. If good practice is to achieve a high level of success, principal and teachers must participate *together* in developing the philosophy and the procedures which are to constitute local practice. They must also help each other acquire the skills necessary for successful operation. This high level of understanding and skill must prevail in the staff of *each* school regardless of the extent to which the individual school does or does not conform to system-wide practice.

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7

Organization for Instruction

ORGANIZATION FOR INSTRUCTION consists of all the elements which, when pieced together, constitute the organizational framework within which teachers are free to work with children. Although organization for instruction is primarily a problem of the internal organization of each school, there are some broad issues which impinge upon the local unit and which must be considered as the internal organization for a given elementary school is developed. Usually there are some state-wide considerations, some system-wide policies, and some matters which are entirely under the jurisdiction of the faculty in the individual school.

STATE CONTROLS OVER PROGRAM-MAKING

It is desirable for local school administrators to bear in mind that in this country the function of education is a responsibility of the state and that local school districts are agents of the state. Although a maximum degree of local autonomy is cherished by all administrators and most state constitutions and laws represent a genuine effort to maintain as much local autonomy as possible, each state has some state requirements to which all local schools must conform.

The educational program of a state is administered to children through a series of local school districts within its boundaries. The effectiveness of such a program will depend in large measure upon the extent to which the instructional program of each separate school system is organized so that the educational program of the state may be properly administered in the classrooms. After all, administrative policies are effective only to the degree that those actually working with the children manifest in their attitudes, speech, and activities the educational theories which it is hoped will permeate the system. Consequently, practically all aspects of administration, such as providing plant facilities; selection, assignment, and in-service training of teachers; organization for supervision; providing equipment and supplies; curriculum construction; and organization of the program for teaching, must be planned and carried out in accordance with the educational program that has been adopted for the larger political unit.

State controls over program-making in local school units vary so much

from state to state that it is difficult to make any sweeping generalizations. A resume of activities and subjects required by law in the several states was given in Chapter 3. In a few states the laws also specify the amount of time per day or per week to be devoted to certain prescribed areas of instruction. In most states the law has something to say about the minimum length of the school day and the school year. The principal of each elementary school must make sure that the program in his school does meet all the legal requirements in his state.

SYSTEM-WIDE CONTROLS OVER PROGRAM-MAKING

Since the educational program of a district is administered through the local school units, each building with its allied facilities must fit into the scheme as a whole and be an essential cog in the wheel. Each educational unit provides for children of certain types and of given ages and is assumed to render to its enrolled pupils certain values toward the attainment of the objectives of public education. Obviously the interpretation of the objectives and the manner in which they shall be attained differs, sometimes markedly, from system to system or even from school to school within the same system. However, if the educational program which has been adopted is to be executed effectively within the local school units, it is essential that the program for instruction be arranged to facilitate the achievement of the outcomes which are sought.

The geographical size and shape of the school district and the number of pupils in attendance in a given building frequently exercise some control over program-making. A teacher in a one-room school with 30 pupils in Grades 1 through 8 would of necessity have a daily or weekly program quite different from a teacher who had 30 first or sixth graders in a school of 600 pupils and 28 teachers. Data reported by 1413 elementary school principals in 1947 revealed that 2 per cent of the supervising principals had schools with fewer than 200 pupils; 27 per cent had enrollments of 200 to 399; while 37 per cent had enrollments of 600 or over. Of the teaching principals, 38 per cent had schools with less than 200 pupils; 47 per cent were in schools with 200 to 399 pupils; and only 15 per cent were in schools with more than 400 pupils.¹

From the standpoint of administrative economy in maintaining a school program of desirable quality, authorities have estimated that the minimum administrative unit should have approximately 2000 pupils in Grades 1 to 12, inclusive, and the minimum elementary school attendance unit, housing

¹ *The Elementary-School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, Twenty-seventh Yearbook (Washington, Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A., 1948), pp. 43, 45.

Grades 1 to 6, inclusive, should have approximately 240 pupils.² Although no one has ever made a detailed analysis of the ways in which the internal organization of elementary schools is affected by size of district or size of enrollment within a given building, general observation would lead to the conclusion that these two factors exercise many controls over program-making. In consolidated districts in which large percentages of the pupils are transported by bus, the schedule of the school must also be adjusted to the bus schedules.

Size of district and size of school may loom large as external controls over program-making in rural areas. City elementary schools, on the other hand, are not free, either, from external controls. In many cases the elementary-school principal has charge of several buildings, and it may prove desirable to make certain program concessions in order to coordinate better with the supervisory visits of the principal. In smaller buildings the principal may do part-time teaching, and schedule adjustment must be made accordingly. Special teachers sometimes render services in two or more buildings; consequently the schedule in each building must be adjusted to the schedule of the special teacher. In some instances special or general supervisors insist on special schedule features in order to facilitate their work. It is not uncommon for children from two or more contiguous buildings to use highly specialized facilities like the general shop or home economics available only in one of the buildings. Such multiple use of facilities available in one but not in another building requires schedule coordination which may result in a program in one or all of the cooperating schools which is less ideal than if each school could plan its program independent of the others.

Other system-wide controls which may help or hinder, as the case may be, program-making in a given school consist of policies regarding the age of admission to kindergarten or first grade, marking and promotion practices, the basic philosophy underlying the instructional program, curriculum design, time allotments, and any other system-wide requirements which bear upon the way in which the organization for instruction may be structured in a given school.

RESOLVING ISSUES RELATING TO ORGANIZATION FOR INSTRUCTION

The program of each elementary school should conform as nearly as possible to all of the best practices in program-making. On some phases of the problem the only guidance that is available comes from educational theory and the experiences of school people who have tried various ways of structuring the organization for instruction. On some issues valuable cues can be

² H. A. Dawson, *Satisfactory Local School Units* (Nashville, George Peabody College for Teachers, Division of Surveys and Field Studies, 1934).

obtained from research studies. The elements of each school's program should be appraised against theory, experience, and research.

Some phases of program design are within the complete jurisdiction of the staff of the individual school. Decisions on these elements should be made through cooperative faculty study and planning. The issues which are involved may form valuable topics for a faculty study program. On those aspects of program-making on which the particular school must fit into a system-wide plan, the issues and problems should be dealt with in a co-operative fashion by system-wide study and policy-formation groups.

The sections which follow represent an effort to identify at least some of the major issues which must be resolved in designing a suitable organization for instruction in a local school.

PROGRAM ORGANIZATION RELATED TO EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY AND PURPOSES

Some persons appear not to be aware of the fact that there is an important relationship between the organization of a teacher's daily or weekly program and the educational philosophy and objectives which are supposed to prevail in a school. The all-school aspect of program-making as well as the detailed schedule for each class are frequently decided in terms of administrative convenience and without thought of the basic curriculum philosophy in terms of which instruction is supposed to take place. Part of this problem was discussed in Chapter 3 under the captions of "The Basic Orientation of the Curriculum" and "The Organization of Teaching-Learning Situations." The reader is invited to review these two sections as background for the present discussion.

A subject-centered curriculum embodying a narrow concept of skills and relying heavily upon transfer of knowledge and skill and taught by the assign-study-recite-test method can probably live satisfactorily under a variety of daily schedules, including one that chops the day up into a large number of short periods. This kind of curriculum can probably exist reasonably well in a platoon or highly departmentalized program. The activity curriculum, in contrast, would be ruined under such a daily schedule.

A child-and-society-centered curriculum which endeavors to serve all areas of child development, to strive for a broad outline of educational values, and to engage children in functional life-centered activities would have to have a program organization suited to its underlying philosophy and purposes. The daily schedule of teachers would have to include at least a few longer periods and have enough flexibility so that excursions, various project activities, and the use of resource persons would be possible.

The basic orientation of the curriculum is so intimately associated with the organization of teaching-learning situations that a separate discussion of the latter's relation to program organization is hardly necessary. Assign-

study-recite-test procedures can be fitted into almost any kind of daily schedule. Experience units, however, and even subject-matter units, require some longer periods and schedule flexibility. Children's participation in life-centered problems cannot be managed successfully unless the above characteristics of classroom schedules prevail.³

PROGRAM ORGANIZATION RELATED TO CURRICULUM DESIGN

The design of the curriculum emerges somewhat naturally after decisions have been reached regarding the basic orientation of the curriculum and the desired organization of teaching-learning situations. In Chapter 3, five types of curriculum design were described under the caption "Design of the Curriculum." Some of these designs were portrayed graphically in Charts 2, 3, and 4. The reader is invited to refer to the discussion and the charts in Chapter 3 as background for the present discussion.

Several important considerations should be kept in mind. The first one is that the design of the curriculum is derived from decisions relating to the scope and nature of the school's objectives, the psychological principles of learning to be utilized in teaching, the basic orientation of the curriculum, and the types of teaching-learning situations to receive major emphasis. Frequently teachers and administrators forget about the significant role assumed in the educative process by the design of the curriculum, and, what is even more serious, they forget the sources out of which curriculum design should be derived and the procedures whereby it is determined. This oversight or lack of understanding becomes particularly serious when accepted educational theory and curriculum design are to be translated into daily operating schedules for a school.

The second important consideration is the fact that the accepted design of the curriculum should determine and govern program arrangements. The daily and weekly schedule of a school and each classroom therein should reflect clearly the type of curriculum design under which the school operates. Table 20 illustrates daily schedules for an intermediate grade under three different curriculum designs. The reader should make special note of how the daily schedule for a class group varies in the three illustrations. Also, the reader should remember that theoretically conceived schedules, such as those shown in Table 20, may have to be modified in a number of ways before they are applicable in a local situation. The chief purpose in presenting the three schedules in Table 20 is to illuminate the essential relationship between curriculum design and program organization.

³ Those interested in a fuller discussion of the relations between learning and instruction will find it profitable to read *Learning and Instruction*, Forty-ninth Yearbook, Part I, of the National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1950). Chapter 10 by Esther J. Swenson and Chapter 11 by G. Max Wingo will be particularly helpful.

TABLE 20: Sample Daily Programs Under Three Different Types of Curriculum Design

SUBJECTS-TAUGHT-IN-ISOLATION	BROAD FIELDS	ACTIVITY OR EXPERIENCE
8:45- 9:00 Management duties Opening exercises	8:45- 9:00 Management duties Health inspection Planning	8:45- 9:15 Management duties Health inspection Show and tell Planning
9:00- 9:35 Arithmetic	9:00-10:30 Social and civic education activities (including all related phases of language arts, music, art, and other associated activities)	9:15-10:30 Time used as planned
9:35-10:00 Reading and literature		10:30-11:00 Physical education
10:00-10:15 Spelling		11:00-12:00 Time used as planned
10:15-10:30 Recess		12:00- 1:00 Lunch and rest period
10:30-11:00 Geography (assembly programs once a week)	10:30-11:00 Physical education	
11:00-11:30 History (current events and civics once a week)	11:00-12:00 Arithmetic (including related language arts)	1:00- 2:40 Time used as planned
11:30-11:45 Music	12:00- 1:00 Lunch and rest period	2:40- 3:00 Evaluation and clean-up Plans for tomorrow
11:45-12:00 Handwriting	1:00- 2:00 Science and health (including related language arts, music, art, and other associated activities)	
12:00- 1:00 Lunch Free play		
1:00- 1:30 Science	2:00- 2:25 Music (Tuesday and Thursday)	
1:30- 2:00 Grammar and composition	2:00- 3:00 Art (Monday and Wednesday)	
2:00- 2:15 Recess	2:25- 3:00 Individual help and independent work (Tuesday and Thursday)	
2:15- 3:00 Health (twice a week) Special interests, homemaking, industrial arts (three times a week)	2:00- 3:00 Special interest clubs (Friday)	

Schedule making is particularly difficult in one- and two-teacher schools, especially if these schools enroll five-year-olds as well as pupils in Grades 7 and 8. Expressing modern concepts of curriculum design and method becomes extremely difficult in small schools unless teachers have become skilled in managing activities in ways which will meet the developmental levels of all pupils while children of widely varying age and grade levels are participating in common projects. With reference to organization in small schools Wofford stressed the importance of developing a schedule which would (a) reduce the number of classes, (b) result in classes large enough for socialization and group work, and (c) make adequate provision for the effective use of time when children work alone and unsupervised.⁴

The effort to secure desirable curriculum design coupled with appropriate daily schedules in small schools is reflected in recently published state courses of study, many of which give sample schedules to aid planning in local schools.⁵ One method which seems to have been used successfully in several states is a plan of alternation of topics by years in such areas as social studies, science, music, and art. In New York State the plan of alternation of work in the social studies provides two curriculum outlines as nearly equal in difficulty as possible; children who enter school in even years follow one outline whereas those who enter in odd years follow the alternate plan. Still another approach to more effective grouping and instruction in small schools is the development of a three-year alternation plan which then enables the school to combine three contiguous grades into one group.⁶

The effort to relate curriculum integration to program-making has also been evident in departmentalized programs. As early as 1934 Cooke and Whitmore published a study dealing with subject combinations in departmentalized elementary schools.⁷ Of the 566 teachers whose programs were examined, 454 were teaching more than one subject. In order of frequency of appearance in actual practice, the 10 most common two-subject combinations were reading and language, language and spelling, arithmetic and science, reading and spelling, history and geography, history and reading,

⁴ Kate V. Wofford, *Teaching in Small Schools* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1946), pp. 103-104.

⁵ Examples may be found in "Daily Program for Rural Schools," *Course of Study for Elementary Grades* (Missouri State Department of Education, 1946), p. 29; *Elementary School Guide* (Indiana State Department of Public Instruction, 1944), p. 8; and *Curriculum Guide for Elementary Schools* (New Mexico State Department of Education, 1950), p. 11.

⁶ Fannie W. Dunn and Marcia A. Everett, *Four Years in a Country School* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926); Fannie W. Dunn and Effie G. Bathurst, *Guide and General Outline, Social Studies for Rural Schools, A Tentative Three-Year Plan for Combining Classes*, Manuscript, Teachers College, Columbia University, Department of Rural Education and Institute of School Experimentation, 1932.

⁷ D. H. Cooke and B. E. Whitmore, "Subject Combinations in Departmentalized Elementary Schools," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 34 (March, 1934), pp. 526-532.

arithmetic and health, history and language, geography and science, and geography and reading. Among the most frequently appearing three-subject combinations were geography-arithmetic-science, language-spelling-reading, arithmetic-science-geography, and spelling-language-penmanship. There was considerable agreement between the subject combinations found in practice and the opinions of experts regarding the most desirable combinations.

Another study which attempted to get at the directions which curriculum integration was taking in elementary schools was made by the writer in 1944.⁸ In approximately half of the 532 schools included in the survey some effort had been made to develop curriculum areas broader than single subjects. Various subject combinations resulting in broader curriculum areas were reported with about equal frequency for the language arts and the social studies fields. The subjects which were combined to produce a more integrated language arts program ranged all the way from spelling and writing to almost complete curriculum integration. In fact, the language arts area, as conceived by the various schools, may be thought of in stages, each succeeding stage representing an integration of a larger number of subjects. In such a conceptual formulation the first stage would be represented by a combination of only two subjects, spelling and writing. Succeeding stages would be represented by such combinations as language-literature, language-spelling-penmanship, spelling-English-reading, spelling-writing-reading-language, reading-English-speech-library, English-art-music-reading, and reading-writing-spelling-language-literature-science-social studies. The most frequently occurring combination was that of spelling-writing-reading-language. As a rule, whatever combination a given school had developed was applied in all the grades taught in that school.

The various combinations in the social-studies field also reflected stages of the type described for the language arts, except that the stages were fewer in number. The first stage representing extent of integration consisted of the combination of history and geography. Other stages of integration were represented by such combinations as history-geography-citizenship, history-geography-economics-social relationship, history-geography-civics-current events, history-geography-language arts, history-geography-art, social studies-language arts-reading-art, and social studies-language arts-science. The most frequently reported combination was that of history and geography, while the second most frequently mentioned group was composed of history, geography, and citizenship. Whatever combination a given school had developed was applied in all grades, just as was the case with integration in the language arts field. For Grade 3 some form of integration in language arts was reported for 86 schools and some form of integration in social

⁸ Henry J. Otto, "The Composition of Elementary School Programs," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 33 (January, 1947), pp. 1-12.

studies for 106 schools. The corresponding figures for Grade 6 were 106 and 175, the difference between the two sets of figures probably being due to the fact that some schools do not offer social studies in the primary grades.

Integration of separate subjects into broader areas was also found, but to a much smaller extent, in the health and science and in the fine arts fields. No one combination in the health and science field was reported for more than five schools. Health-science, health-physical education, health-safety, health-science-physical education, and health-safety-citizenship were the more common types of combinations. In the fine arts field the most common types of combinations were arts-crafts, music-art, art-music-literature, and art-music-literature-dramatics. No one of these combinations in the fine arts was reported for more than five schools.

PROGRAM ORGANIZATION RELATED TO GROUPING AND PROMOTION

Careful thought should be given to the relationships which ought to prevail between policies regarding the grouping and promotion of pupils and the organization of the instructional program. The problem falls into at least three major categories. The first of these categories pertains to the need for children to engage in some activities involving wide age ranges of pupils. Most authorities agree that children at all age levels should have at least a reasonable number and variety of opportunities to work or play with older and younger children. If such educational opportunities are to be included, the school's schedule must provide ways in which this can be done with convenience. Perhaps schedule flexibility will be adequate but usually mere possibility does not result in actual practice; the idea must be discussed with the teachers and specific plans laid so that the periodic intermingling of age groups may take place. The conventional assembly program can hardly be judged as a suitable vehicle for this purpose; children must have genuine purposeful activities in which they engage in a cooperating manner if the desired educational values are to be derived from inter-age contacts.

A second phase of the problem deals with the need for children to have experiences within their own age levels with groups larger than the membership of a single class. Children's social development requires the acquisition of attitudes and conduct patterns suitable in large gatherings of their peers. A school program should make it possible for the several first grade or sixth grade sections, or the first and second, or the second and third grade sections, or similar combinations of other grades to engage in some joint activities. Joint physical education or auditorium programs are but two illustrations of the possibilities in this regard. School policy and faculty planning should encourage a suitable number of these larger-group ventures

and the school schedule should facilitate the convenience with which several teachers could combine their classes for occasional joint projects.

The kinds of class groups brought together by the grouping and promotion practices also have bearing upon program organization. If rigid promotion standards based primarily upon academic attainments, resulting in much overageness and retardation, are applied, the school program should provide a variety of opportunities for the retarded pupils to participate in activities with children of their own ages. In only rare cases does a retarded child not have some capacities which have reached a developmental level comparable with chronological age, even if it is only athletic ability. In the latter case the school schedule should permit him to play with children of his level of physical development. If progress policies approximate regular promotion for nearly all pupils, there will still be individual cases for which membership in one or more groups other than the home-room group would be desirable for certain activities. Program organization, especially the flexible elements of a program, can assist a great deal in making special opportunities available to certain pupils.

PROGRAM ORGANIZATION RELATED TO LIBRARY SERVICE

Teachers' daily and weekly schedules should be planned in terms of the ways in which the classroom instructional program is to be related to the library service in the school. Schools which have no centralized library and rely solely upon classroom collections do not have this problem, but schools with centralized libraries should have planned procedures whereby the library can have the most valuable working relationships with each classroom. In platoon schools reading classes are usually held in the library, thus making the library and its resources immediately accessible to the teacher of reading, but at the same time making it difficult for the library to serve other teachers and the other curriculum areas.

In departmentalized schools the schedule for intermediate grade classes may provide for two or more periods per week in the library but unless the pupils' time in the library and the librarian's services to the pupils are carefully coordinated with the work of other teachers the "library time" may contribute little to the enrichment of instruction in the various curriculum areas. Nondepartmentalized schools may or may not have each class scheduled for a given number of periods per week in the library. If such a plan is followed the problem of the relationship of the library to the instructional program is similar to that in departmentalized schools. If classes do not have definitely scheduled periods in the library, other means for utilizing library service must be developed and provided for in classroom schedules. Further details on the use and organization of library service will be given in a subsequent chapter.

LENGTH OF SCHOOL DAY AND PROGRAM ORGANIZATION

In school work, as in other lines of endeavor, the amount of time available determines to a large extent what may be undertaken with profit and how the available time is distributed among the activities to be included. Time allotments and length of school day are thus important factors impinging upon program organization. Table 21 portrays a comparison of length of school day from 1823 to 1926. Note that prior to 1856 the length of school day was the same in all grades. From 1856 to 1904 the trend was toward shorter daily sessions. After 1904, except in Grades 1 and 2, the trend changed again toward longer sessions, and that by 1926 the length of daily sessions had returned to approximately what they were in 1866.

TABLE 21: Comparative Length of School Day, 1823-1926, by Grades. Average Number of Minutes per Day Exclusive of Noon Periods *

	AVERAGE NUMBER OF MINUTES PER DAY IN EACH GRADE					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1926 (444 cities)	269	287	307	316	323	323
1926 (14 states)	268	287	314	320	329	329
1904	263	286	299	304	314	311
1866	300	303	307	318	325	325
1856 (Cleveland)	360	360	360	360	360	360
1845 (Boston)†	360	360	360	360	360	360
1823 and 1827 (Boston) †	375	375	375	375	375	375

* From C. H. Mann, *How Schools Use Their Time*, Contributions to Education, No. 333 (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928), p. 133. Reproduced by permission of and arrangement with the publishers.

† Present type of graded organization was not in vogue in Boston in 1823 and 1845. Time given is for corresponding years in the Grammar and Writing Schools.

The length of the school day in 1938-1939, including lunch and rest periods, is summarized in Table 22. A survey of 100 city school systems completed in 1948 produced the following figures: For Grades 1-3, the median length of school day reported by 80 cities was 5 hours; the longest day was 6½ hours; the shortest day was 3¾ hours. For Grades 4-6 the median length of school day reported by 77 cities was 5½ hours; the longest day was 6¾ hours; the shortest day was 4½ hours. For Grades 7-8 the median length of day in 37 cities was 5½ hours; the longest day was 6¾ hours; the shortest day was 4¾ hours.⁹ These data do not include noon lunch periods. This fact should be kept in mind if comparisons are made with the data in Tables 21 and 22. The length of daily sessions, grade for

⁹ Effie G. Bathurst and others, *Organization and Supervision of Elementary Education in 100 Cities*, Bulletin No. 11 (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1949), p. 32.

grade, was not greatly different in 1948 than it was in 1866. The 1948 medians are greater by about 30 minutes than the 1926 averages for the primary grades but only slightly higher for the intermediate grades.

"Trends in City-School Organization, 1938 to 1948" gave the opening and closing hours in 1399 city-school systems as summarized in Table 23. In the majority of these city school systems the length of the typical school day in elementary schools in 1947-1948 was identical with that reported in 1937-1938. Only 12 per cent of the cities had increased the length of the

TABLE 22: Length of School Day in Elementary Schools, Including Lunch and Recess Periods, 1938-1939 *

MINUTES IN SCHOOL DAY	GROUP I 73 Cities Above 100,000 in Population							
	Gr. 1	Gr. 2	Gr. 3	Gr. 4	Gr. 5	Gr. 6	Gr. 7	Gr. 8
Maximum	480	480	480	480	480	480	480	480
Median	391	395	398	399	399	399	400	400
Minimum	270	300	315	330	330	330	330	330

MINUTES IN SCHOOL DAY	GROUP II 137 Cities, 30,000 to 100,000 Population							
	Gr. 1	Gr. 2	Gr. 3	Gr. 4	Gr. 5	Gr. 6	Gr. 7	Gr. 8
Maximum	420	420	420	420	420	420	435	435
Median	392	396	410	406	406	406	407	410
Minimum	240	270	270	300	300	300	300	330

* Adapted from *Length of School Sessions and Class Periods in Public Schools, 1938-1939*, Educational Research Service, A.A.S.A. and N.E.A., Circular No. 2 (1940).

TABLE 23: Elementary-School Opening and Closing Hours in 1399 City School Systems, 1947-1948 *

OPENING HOUR	PER CENT OF CITIES	CLOSING HOUR	PER CENT OF CITIES
By 8:15 A.M.	3	By 2:15 P.M.	3
8:16 to 8:30 A.M.	19	2:16 to 2:30 P.M.	1
8:31 to 8:45 A.M.	21	2:31 to 2:45 P.M.	3
8:46 to 9:00 A.M.	57	2:46 to 3:00 P.M.	13
After 9:00 A.M.	†	3:01 to 3:15 P.M.	12
		3:16 to 3:30 P.M.	37
		3:31 to 3:45 P.M.	14
		3:46 to 4:00 P.M.	17
		After 4:00 P.M.	†

* From "Trends in City-School Organization, 1938 to 1948," *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 27, No. 1 (February, 1949), p. 33.

† Less than 1 per cent.

school day; the median increase was 22 minutes. Sixteen per cent of the cities had decreased the length of the elementary-school day; the median decrease was 26 minutes. Both the length of the school day and the hours for opening and closing had remained relatively constant during the decade covered by the study. The most popular opening hour was 9:00 A.M., with 8:30 and 8:45 following in that order. The most popular closing hour was 3:30 P.M., followed by 4:00, 3:00, 3:15, and 3:45, in that order.¹⁰

Special schedule problems frequently arise regarding kindergartens. Common practice seems to place kindergartens on half-day schedules, some groups having a morning session while others come for afternoons. Although some writers imply a morning session only by the sample daily programs that are suggested,¹¹ most authorities in the field of early childhood education recommend all-day sessions for kindergarten children.¹² Olson stated that there probably are no better educational reasons for putting kindergartens on half-day sessions than there are for putting other grades on a similar schedule.¹³ The main reasons why kindergartens continue to operate on half-day sessions are that they are newer and less generally accepted and that half-day sessions are cheaper. All-day schedules for kindergartens are recommended on the assumption that a nap period of suitable length is provided at mid-day after the lunch period. The arguments in favor of all-day sessions for kindergartens apply with even greater force to the primary grades. If school facilities are adequate to permit a suitable health regime for young children, there is little reason for dismissing the first grade or the first and second grade any earlier than the other grades. A staggered dismissal schedule usually creates havoc with bus schedules, with teachers' after-school duties, and with parents' schedules when they also have children in grades which dismiss at a later hour.

When co-curricular activities first made their appearance in elementary schools they were classified as extra-curricular in the same fashion that they were considered as extra-curricular in the secondary schools at that time. In time, however, the activities classified as co-curricular in elementary schools were woven more and more into the regular school day so that fewer and fewer of them took place during before or after school hours. Increasingly such activities as May day, athletic events, dramatics, assembly programs, hobby clubs, glee club, orchestra, band, and student council were scrutinized

¹⁰ "Trends in City-School Organization, 1938 to 1948," *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 27, No. 1 (February, 1949), pp. 31-33.

¹¹ Helen Heffernan, ed., *Guiding the Young Child* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1951), p. 29; Roma Gans, Celia Burns Stendler, and Millie Almy, *Teaching Young Children* (Yonkers, N. Y., World Book Co., 1952), pp. 105-106.

¹² Josephine C. Foster and Neith E. Headley, *Education in the Kindergarten*, 2d ed. (New York, American Book Co., 1948), pp. 119-123; Clarice D. Wills and William H. Stegeman, *Living in the Kindergarten* (Chicago, Follett Publishing Co., 1950), p. 99.

¹³ Willard C. Olson, *Child Development* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1949), p. 372.

carefully to ascertain their genuine contributions to an elementary-school program. In many elementary schools only those co-curricular activities are retained which can be shown to have real value for elementary-school children. Those that are retained are then no longer viewed as extra-curricular or even as co-curricular but rather as essential elements of a complete elementary-school program. When viewed in this light they have a legitimate claim on school time, and therefore should be scheduled within the regular school day. Such a viewpoint is justified even if only a few pupils engage in certain activities; the school should provide a variety of ways for serving pupils' special interests or for enriching the curriculum for superior children.

When the co-curricular activities have been reduced in number to the ones that have educational values appropriate for elementary-school pupils and the remaining selection has been amalgamated into the regular school program, certain program difficulties have been eliminated but other problems have been added. It is no longer necessary to find suitable periods before and after school and to find teachers with appropriate interest, talents, and availability during odd hours. The new schedule-making problem means finding ways in which the co-curricular activities can be fitted into an all-school schedule in ways that will cause these activities to emerge as integral parts of on-going classroom programs. The objective to be sought is characterized by Hildreth as "no extras in the program."¹⁴ Such a degree of integration of the curricular and the co-curricular remains as a challenge in most schools.

Many schools today have varying proportions of pupils traveling to and from school by bus. Invariably the schedule of one or more busses is such that some children arrive at school 30 or more minutes before the official opening hour. Educationally valuable activities must be planned for such groups. No doubt the best practice is to have these children go directly to their home rooms and for each teacher to plan appropriate before-school activities for those who are members of her class. In this way the before-school activities can be determined in the light of individual pupil needs and interests. Enrichment activities for some, free reading for others, and special practice for others are examples of desirable practices. Some schools merely turn these early arrivers loose on the playground or in the gymnasium; such practice should be avoided.

Some children traveling by bus must remain at school for 30 minutes or more after the official closing hour for their grade. Educational planning for them should be similar to the suggestions made in the preceding paragraph. If the closing hour for children in the primary grades is noticeably earlier than for intermediate or high-school grades and some of the primary-grade children must wait for busses, the plans should probably include a combina-

¹⁴ Gertrude Hildreth, *Child Growth Through Education* (New York, The Ronald Press Co., 1948), pp. 130-131.

tion of worth-while educational activities plus an extended rest period at noon.

Wherever the transportation problem exists in one form or another some adjustments must be made in the organization of the program. The before-and-after-school care of pupils has been mentioned already. The other major program-making problem consists of making sure that all activities which comprise the school's total program for children take place during the officially scheduled school day. Children who travel by school bus should not be forced out of desired participation because of bus schedules. Sometimes this concept of "no extras" outside of regular school hours creates very difficult schedule problems.

Overcrowded enrollments have forced half-day sessions in a large number of school systems throughout the country. Since there is no research to give guidance regarding half-day session, most school systems are combining best judgment with expediency in reaching decisions. Since parents of young children protest less than parents of older children, expediency has dictated half-day sessions in primary grades rather than in the intermediate or high-school grades. Parent attitude is probably the only reason that one could give in support of half-day sessions in primary rather than later grades. Certainly logic would favor half-day sessions for older pupils, if there must be half-day sessions for any groups. The pupils best qualified to engage in independent study at home would be senior-high-school students. Then, in diminishing order of competence for independent study, would be junior-high-school pupils, intermediate-grade children, and pupils in primary grades. Children in kindergarten and primary grades are in greatest need of extensive teacher guidance and consequently should have first claim upon full-day sessions. Nurturing primary-grade pupils on half-day sessions means the building of a weak foundation, which in later years may jeopardize the quality of work done in the secondary grades. It seems clear that few school systems have faced the problem of half-day sessions on a strictly educational basis. The task of putting junior or senior high schools on half-day session and letting upper-elementary grades use some of their classrooms should not be insurmountable if the will to do so were present.

Special program-making problems arise regardless of the grade level at which half-day sessions are created. Usually the tendency is to crowd into the half-day the customary time allotted to the three R's and then to do as much else as time will permit. The result is that many of the other educational opportunities usually provided in good elementary schools are diluted or omitted altogether. If the total school program is appropriate for elementary-school pupils, it is easy to see which elements are being denied to pupils on half-day sessions. Again research is silent on the best kinds of decisions to make when half-day sessions are unavoidable. Perhaps the clarification of at least some of the issues may be helpful to administrators in some localities.

DEPARTMENTALIZATION OF INSTRUCTION

Another question which frequently arises when planning an instructional program is whether each teacher shall be called upon to be a general practitioner, that is, teach all the subjects of the curriculum to the one group of children assigned to her, or whether each teacher may be permitted to specialize in only one or a few subjects. The history of departmental teaching in elementary schools in this country was sketched in Chapter 1. It remains for us to examine the issues and the research. The theoretical arguments pro and con have been postulated by other writers and will not be repeated here.¹⁵

It may be assumed that any device which results in larger and better achievements (the word "achievements" being used in a broad sense) and which provides more adequately for the individual differences of children, contributes to the welfare of children. At present, efforts to determine scientifically whether departmental teaching, as such, produces better results have been confined almost entirely to subject-matter outcomes. Stewart's study in Cleveland included matched groups in Grades 5B, 6A, 6B, 7B, and 8B.¹⁶

An examination of the progress of the Alpha (departmentalized) and Beta groups for each of the three semesters showed that the Alpha group did relatively poorer work during the first semester and that the Beta group did relatively poorer work during the third semester (after they had been changed to the departmental plan). Stewart suggested that these shifts in superior gains may have been due in part to a period of adjustment following the introduction of departmental teaching. He also indicated that one thing was certain, namely, the pupils who were taught departmentally made considerably poorer gains than those taught according to the grade plan. The total advantage for the Beta group was 43 per cent, with a minimum value statistically almost certain to be greater than 21 per cent.

Another controlled experiment in this field was conducted in Clarks-ville, Arkansas, during the school year 1929-1930.¹⁷ The results suggest that some subjects are taught more effectively under the departmental organization, whereas achievement in other subjects seems to be greater if the grade organization is preserved. The authors of the study concluded that there seems to be little evidence upon which to base any generaliza-

¹⁵ W. H. Maxwell, "Departmental Teaching," in Report of the City Superintendent of Schools, New York (July, 1905), pp. 195-203; T. H. Briggs, *The Junior High School* (New York, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920), pp. 127-130; Harlan A. Hagman, "Shall We Departmentalize?" *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 28 (July, 1941), p. 30.

¹⁶ A. W. Stewart, *A Comparison of Departmental And Grade Teaching*, unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Ohio State University, 1927.

¹⁷ J. R. Gerberich and C. E. Prall, "Departmental Organization Versus Traditional Organization in the Intermediate Grades," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 31 (May, 1931), pp. 671-677.

tion regarding the effectiveness of either plan of organization. Eight differences, three of which were fairly significant, showed higher achievement under departmentalization. Seven differences, three of which were fairly conclusive, favored the grade plan.

The advocates of the platoon school have been among the most ardent supporters of departmental teaching. The studies which have been made to evaluate the platoon school have failed to show unquestioned superiority of that form of organization in producing subject-matter achievements.¹⁸ One objection which is frequently raised against departmental teaching is that it results in the disintegration rather than the integration of the pupil's experience. Bonser called attention to a number of factors which tend to prevent the integration of pupil experiences,¹⁹ among these being the separation of the tool subjects from the activities in which the tools are used, the periodic shifting of classes, the large number of pupils that each teacher must meet daily, and the fact that a number of different teachers are making demands upon the same pupil. In some schools deliberate attempts to overcome some of these criticisms have resulted in projects that appear to be well coordinated and articulated.²⁰

Professional literature has repeatedly called striking attention to individual differences among children and the need for thoroughly knowing and understanding the "whole child" in order to guide his efforts properly. It is not definitely known how many or what kinds of contacts with pupils are necessary to enable a teacher to recognize individual differences as recommended by professional literature. Neither is it clearly understood how the organization of a school may interfere with or make less difficult the practical application of this doctrine. A teacher's schedule of recitations, the total number of different students taught each day or week, and the frequency and duration of contacts with students are likely to be important factors in determining the extent to which a teacher is able to know and to understand thoroughly each pupil's needs. As a rule, teachers of special subjects make much less contact with students than departmental teachers of academic subjects and the "grade" teachers, who have the same pupils all day every day of the semester or year. It is uncertain whether recognition of individual differences and "knowing the whole child" may be attained better if grade teachers have complete charge of all pupils' school activities for one semester or year and then shift to another

¹⁸ C. L. Spain, *The Platoon School: A Study of the Adaptation of the Elementary School Organization to the Curriculum* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1924), Ch. IV; S. A. Courtis, *The Gary Schools: Measurement of Classroom Products* (New York, General Education Board, 1919); H. P. Shepard, "Some Platoon School Results," *Platoon School*, Vol. 4 (February, 1931), pp. 176-180.

¹⁹ F. G. Bonser, "Reasons for My Objections to the Platoon Plan," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 27 (December, 1925), pp. 306-310.

²⁰ Elvira McDonald, "Correlation As It Was Carried Out in a Platoon School," *Educational Method*, Vol. 10 (October, 1930), pp. 24-29.

group, or if departmental teachers have charge of smaller portions of each period's work but retain the same pupils for several semesters.

Hutson called striking attention to the total number of different pupils met per week as a factor in the teaching load.²¹ Although his data were gathered in the junior high school, they have implications for the elementary school. A portion of the interpretation of his data follows:²²

In harmony with the trend of industrial civilization toward specialization and therefore expertness in a narrow field of endeavor, we have been moving rapidly in our schools toward finer and finer specialization of the teacher's work. In addition to the horizontal division, there is a vertical division which follows the lines of cleavage between the various subjects of the adult-organized world. Perhaps we have been dimly aware of the fact that such specialization narrows the teacher's load on the X-axis (number of contacts with pupils), but it seems that we have not been particularly aware of the lengthening of the teacher's load on the Y-axis (number of different pupils met). Unless the public is willing to shoulder larger instructional costs, the shortening of the X-axis inevitably means a complementary extension of the Y-axis. Specialization in teaching, as in the automobile industry, simply means that the worker makes slight contact with many units of the product instead of many and extended contacts with a few units. One of the alleged advantages of large factories and large schools is that they facilitate this specialization. Is the school properly analogous to the factory? If so, to what degree does the analogy hold?

Obviously, such questions open up large issues in education. Several of these were ably stated and argued by Spain and Bonser a few years ago in their exposition of the merits and disadvantages of the platoon school.²³ Regardless of the clash of philosophies over the issue of specialization in the teaching load, the recent scientific demonstrations of individual differences in capacities, interests, achievements, and environments have created more general acceptance than ever before of the concept that thorough knowledge of the pupil largely conditions the effectiveness of our efforts to educate him. How many pupils the teacher can know and how many contacts he needs with his pupils in order to know them are questions which are hard to answer, but it is a fact that junior high school teachers are frequently heard distressfully expressing their inability to know the individuals in the changing crowds which face them.

The administrative feasibility of departmental teaching may be considered from at least two points of view: costs and supervision. If a comparison is made between the traditional plan whereby the pupil receives all his instruction from one teacher and some plan of specialization in teaching which permits the regular teachers to be idle or to carry an underload of pupils while the special teachers are in charge of the classes, the former plan is obviously less expensive. Spain points out clearly the economies which may be effected in teachers' salaries by the type of depart-

²¹ P. W. Hutson, "A Neglected Factor in the Teaching Load," *School Review*, Vol. 40, (March, 1932), pp. 192-203.

²² *Ibid.*, pp. 200-201.

²³ C. L. Spain, "The Platoon School and the Superintendent," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 27 (December, 1925), pp. 293-305; Bonser, *op. cit.*

mentalization in operation in platoon schools as compared to the type found in non-platoon schools.²⁴ In a sixteen-section platoon school, for example, the average number of teachers employed is 18.48. In a partially departmentalized non-platoon school of similar size the average number of teachers employed is 20.16. The waste of teacher service is due to the employment of special teachers who are working while the regular teachers are idle or while they are carrying an underload of pupils. Doubtless departmental programs could be arranged which would not result in this waste in teacher service. In a small school teachers might exchange classes so that each teacher could teach one or more of her favorite subjects. In larger schools it might be possible to assign to each teacher only her favorite or special subject. With such arrangements salary costs ought not to differ unless teachers are paid more when they are permitted to teach their specialties.

It is also argued that departmental teaching makes for economies in equipment. The cost of equipment varies according to the community and the educational policy. If departmental teachers are supplied with only the meager equipment which in many instances was supplied to teachers under the "single-teacher" plan, the cost of equipment is likely to be less. The study by Shepard shows that for platoon schools the majority of cities report a greater cost of equipment.²⁵ Here again the cost of equipment in platoon schools should probably not be compared with equipment costs in departmentalized non-platoon schools; some discrepancies may exist that are not taken into account.

It is not clearly understood to what extent opinion should determine the administrative practices which should be incorporated in elementary-school organization. It would probably be unwise to insist on a form of organization which did not have the sympathetic support of the individuals who are to function in that organization. It may be of interest to refer briefly to an experience with departmental teaching in the elementary schools in Cleveland reported by Buckley.²⁶ During the second semester of 1928-1929 a form of semi-departmentalization was tried in Grades 3 to 6, inclusive, in one school. At the end of the semester all the teachers voted against the plan, while 75 per cent of the pupils voted for it. In the room of the strongest teacher 90 per cent of the pupils voted against the plan. In the rooms of the weakest teachers almost 100 per cent of the pupils voted for it. In another study a questionnaire submitted to representative educators and classroom teachers revealed the fact that about 50 per cent of the former and 86 per cent of the latter favor departmentalization.²⁷

²⁴ Spain, "The Platoon School and the Superintendent," *op. cit.*

²⁵ Shepard, *op. cit.*

²⁶ H. M. Buckley, "Difficulties in Introducing Departmental Teaching," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 30 (April, 1930), pp. 574-575.

²⁷ Evande Becker and N. K. Gleason, "Departmentalization in the Intermediate Grades," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 28 (September, 1927), pp. 62-66.

Most of the teachers included in the latter study had had some experience with departmental teaching. These teachers recorded 11 factors which they considered advantages of the plan.

The removal of the seventh and eighth grades from an elementary school and the departmentalization of the fifth and sixth grades gave Whaley an opportunity to secure the reaction of the pupils to the new order.²⁸ At the end of four months 58 per cent of the fifth grade and 59 per cent of the sixth grade pupils favored the new plan. Thirty-three per cent of the younger group and 19 per cent of the older group were opposed to it; the remaining pupils were undecided. At the end of two years the percentage of students favoring departmentalization remained the same but the percentage disliking it had decreased.

The most recent study of departmental teaching focused upon curriculum practices. Rouse prepared a check list of 137 items characterizing curriculum and teaching practices and then visited 20 departmentalized and 20 nondepartmental schools.²⁹ An entire day was spent at each school with a fourth-grade or a fifth-grade class. Actual observation of instruction was supplemented with interviews with the teacher and principal in each school. In the 40 schools visited, 108 of the 137 curriculum and teaching practices were found in actual use. Some of them were found in equal or varying percentages of schools in both groups; others, in schools of only one group. Differences in the percentage of two groups following a given practice were found for 94 items, but in only 14 of these items were the differences statistically significant. Table 24 identifies the 14 items, shows the group in which the largest percentage of schools used the practice and the appraisal of each practice in the writings of specialists in elementary education. Only one of the seven differences favoring the departmental schools is endorsed by the specialists in elementary education, whereas all seven of the differences favoring the nondepartmentalized schools are approved by this group.

Perhaps the important issues about departmentalization in the elementary school should be resolved in terms of the way in which one wants teachers to work with children, the philosophy and objectives of the school, the basic orientation of the curriculum, and the desired organization of teaching-learning situations. Elsbree and McNally point out that departmentalization is clearly a plan designed to fit a subject-centered school.³⁰ Broadly integrated functional units could hardly be expected to emerge in

²⁸ L. S. Whaley, "Attitude of Intermediate-Grade Children toward Departmentalization," *Educational Method*, Vol. XII (November, 1932), pp. 106-107.

²⁹ Margaret Rouse, "A Comparison of Curriculum Practices in Departmental and Nondepartmental Schools," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 47 (September, 1946), pp. 34-42.

³⁰ Willard S. Elsbree and Harold J. McNally, *Elementary School Administration and Supervision* (New York, American Book Co., 1951), p. 91.

a departmentalized organization. Other limitations of departmentalization have been set forth forcefully by Seegers.³¹

TABLE 24: Statistically Significant Differences Found in Curriculum Practices in Departmental and Nondepartmental Schools and Evaluation of Each Procedure in Terms of Recommendations of Specialists in Elementary Education *

PHASES IN WHICH STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES WERE FOUND	GROUP OF SCHOOLS FAVORED BY EACH DIFFERENCE	EVALUATION OF SPECIALISTS
<i>Difference in scope of curriculum:</i>		
Writing taught as a formal subject	Departmental	Doubtful
Music taught as a separate subject	Departmental	Approved
Participation in safety practices	Nondepartmental	Approved
<i>Differences in general pattern of curriculum organization:</i>		
Curriculum organized on subject bases	Departmental	Disapproved
Curriculum organized on basis of correlated curriculum	Nondepartmental	Approved
<i>Differences in selected curriculum practices:</i>		
Number of periods per day	Departmental	Disapproved
Uniformity of length of periods	Departmental	Disapproved
Number of interruptions of children's activities per day	Departmental	Disapproved
<i>Differences in classroom procedures:</i>		
Grouping pupils for reading instruction	Nondepartmental	Approved
Use of formal oral reading in reading class	Departmental	Disapproved
Preparation and giving of oral reports in language class	Nondepartmental	Approved
Use of visual aids in social-studies class	Nondepartmental	Approved
Use of oral reports in social-studies class	Nondepartmental	Approved
Correlation of art activities with other classes	Nondepartmental	Approved

* From Margaret Rouse, "A Comparison of Curriculum Practices in Departmental and Nondepartmental Schools," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 47 (September, 1946), p. 41. Copyright 1953 by the University of Chicago.

SEQUENCE OF SUBJECTS IN THE DAILY PROGRAM

It used to be assumed that pupils were more efficient mentally at certain times of the day than at other times, and class schedules were arranged so that subjects thought to be more difficult than others, such as mathematics and science, were placed early in the morning session. Those thought to be less difficult, like music and manual and graphic arts, were scheduled

³¹ J. Conrad Seegers, "The Case Against Departmentalization," *Purpose and Plan in Education*, Thirty-second Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings (Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania, 1945), pp. 291-299; J. Conrad Seegers, "More About Departmentalization," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 47 (March, 1947), pp. 396-401.

late in the afternoon.³² Recent research has shown this assumption to be false. In fact the efficiency of pupils fluctuates but slightly. Some studies showed that the variations that occurred were contrary to general theory; the efficiency of pupils to perform the specified tasks increased slightly but steadily from nine to twelve o'clock and from one to three o'clock. There was a decrease in efficiency from the period immediately preceding noon to the period immediately following the noon hour. Efficiency in motor skill was at the peak during the last period in the afternoon.³³ It thus seems apparent that the sequence of subjects in the daily program may be determined by factors other than pupil efficiency.

The increasing use of activity curriculum with the accompanying integration of subject matter renders relatively obsolete the former approaches to a determination of desirable subject sequence in the daily program except for the fact that the general guiding principles still hold and that extensive experience with the activity program suggests the desirability of a planning period at the beginning of each day's session.

GRADE COMBINATIONS

Not all elementary schools are fortunate enough to have the number of pupils of any one age or grade group divisible into desirably sized class groups without having a few pupils left over who must then be assigned to a section, the remainder of which consists of a fractional section of another grade. It is not uncommon to have classes consist of such combinations as 15 third-grade and 18 fourth-grade pupils. Such grade combinations are more frequent in semiannual than in annual promotion schools. Brandon found, for example, that in Waco, Texas, under semi-annual promotions, there were approximately 30 combination sections each semester in the 12 elementary schools staffed by about 150 teachers.³⁴ During the transition year while the school system was shifting to annual promotions the number of combination sections dropped to 19 the first semester and 18 the second semester. After the transition was completed the number of combination sections diminished to less than one per school.

During the years when the "grade standards" concept of education was at its height, principals, teachers, and parents felt much concern if a combination section of any two contiguous grades had to be organized.

³² D. H. Cooke and B. E. Whitmore, "Subject Combinations in Departmentalized Elementary Schools," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 34 (March, 1934), p. 530.

³³ Arthur I. Gates, *Psychology for Students of Education*, rev. ed. (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1930), p. 471.

³⁴ Bertha M. Brandon, *Problems and Procedures Affecting The Transition from Semiannual to Annual Promotion in the Public Schools of Waco, Texas*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1948.

This attitude has not yet disappeared entirely, at least not among parents, but research and experience have shed new light on the problem.

Knight arranged an experiment in which he endeavored to discover whether children who were placed in a double or combination grade (a room containing two grades) could be expected to advance as rapidly in their education as children in rooms containing only a single grade. Some fourth-grade sections were in double grades with third-grade pupils, some were in double grades with fifth-grade pupils, while others consisted of only fourth-grade pupils. Evaluation was in terms of the mean gain in achievement as determined by giving the Stanford Achievement Test at the beginning and conclusion of the semester's experiment. The testing program was supplemented with questionnaires to teacher, observation of condition in the classrooms, and a study of office records.³⁵

The objective testing program led Knight to make the following conclusions: (1) fourth-grade children in double grades, whether combined with the grade above or the grade below, equaled or surpassed in growth children in rooms having only fourth-grade pupils when the composite score on the achievement test is considered; (2) when segments of the test are considered, the fourth-grade children in double grades excelled in reading (paragraph and word meaning), arithmetic computation, English capitalization and usage, and social studies; the children in straight fourth grades excelled in spelling, punctuation, and sentence structure; spelling was the only subject in which the difference between experimental and control groups showed statistical significance; (3) when considering the differences between the groups in the separate subjects, it did not seem to make any difference whether children were combined with the grade above or the grade below.

The more pertinent of the conclusions drawn by Knight from the supplementary data are: (1) principals and teachers generally were not in favor of double grades, while the children did not seem to have any preference in the matter; (2) double grades proved to be especially suited to care for retardation and acceleration; (3) except for arithmetic and reading, teachers generally taught their rooms as if they had one grade; (4) the teacher and not the organization of the room appeared to be the important factor to the child.

Leaders in rural education were among the first to recommend broader groupings for instructional purposes. Perhaps this was an instance in which necessity was the mother of invention, but in order to give children in one- and two-teacher schools a feasible learning schedule it was necessary to group two or more contiguous grades for much of the daily program. Wofford recommends three groups for a one-teacher school with

³⁵ E. E. Knight, "A Study of Double Grades in New Haven City Schools," *Journal of Experimental Education*, Vol. 7 (September, 1938), pp. 11-18.

eight grades.³⁶ Group A would consist of children 12, 13, and 14 years of age; Group B, those who are 9, 10, and 11 years of age; and Group C, those who are 6, 7, and 8 years old. These three groups form the basic working units for the school, except in the tool subjects in which children are taught individually or in smaller groups. For certain fields, such as music, health, and science, all the children are taught as one group. This general pattern is usually intermingled with many other kinds of groupings based on pupil interests. In one school, for example, in a study of Argentina, a small group consisting of 2 fourth-graders, 4 fifth-graders, 1 sixth-grader, and 1 seventh-grader made a special study comparing the gauchos of Argentina with the cowboys of the United States.³⁷ Such mingling of older and younger pupils has certain educational values not available in a rigidly graded school.

The trend toward the development of ungraded primary units and intermediate-grade units, as described in Chapter 6, is further evidence of the changing conceptions about rigid age or grade groups. In the laboratory school at the University of Chicago the children who would normally be first and second graders are deliberately organized into "primary groups" in order to capture some of the values inherent in children of varying ages having many opportunities to do things together.³⁸

Research in children's growth and development, partially summarized in Chapters 2 and 5, has cast sufficient light upon the way in which children unfold educationally and how the school may best foster such development that the old worries about combination grades have largely disappeared. Findings such as those reported by Knight are not surprising in view of the overlapping of abilities and achievement between contiguous grades and the fact that some recent research suggests that children's growth in academic achievement is tuned to the growth pattern of the organism as a whole. The fact that class groups composed of two contiguous grades do not influence children's achievement unfavorably probably does not hold true if extreme combinations are made. In general, Knight's findings have implications for grouping and promotion in that normal growth in achievement may accrue if the child is placed in groups in which he is socially well adjusted.

³⁶ Kate V. Wofford, *Teaching in Small Schools* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1946), pp. 74-77.

³⁷ Effie G. Bathurst and Jane Franseth, *Modern Ways in One- and Two-Teacher Schools*, Bulletin No. 18 (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1951), pp. 4-5.

³⁸ Ada R. Polkinghorne, "Grouping Children in the Primary Grades," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 50 (May, 1950), pp. 502-508.

TIME ALLOTMENTS

The amount and proportion of school time to be allocated to each subject or activity is difficult to determine. There are several reasons why decisions on time allotments cannot be made on a scientific basis or prescribed for all schools in the nation. Except for limited research in such narrow areas as spelling and handwriting, there is no scientific evidence on how much school time in which grades is required to achieve what levels of performance. Society's changing demands upon elementary schools, changing conceptions of desired levels of pupil achievement, and improved methods and materials are causing time allotment practices to remain in flux.

No nation-wide survey of time allotments in elementary schools has been made since Mann's study in 1926.³⁹ The trend toward broad fields and activity-type curricula and the unit organization of teaching-learning situations would probably make it impossible to repeat a nation-wide survey with the methods used by Mann. New studies in this field would probably have to be made by carefully structured interview and questionnaire procedures geared to school curricula as they are evolving in each state or in school systems moving in similar directions in curriculum revision. The difficulty of making such studies probably explains why none has been made in recent years. Still the absence of recent studies does not relieve principal and teacher of the problem.

Two trends in time allotment practices appear evident. Fewer minutes per week and a somewhat smaller proportion of school time are devoted to instruction in the three R's. Partial evidence of this trend is obtained by comparing the findings of a 1951 Wisconsin survey with data supplied by Mann in 1926. Mann's study showed a median of 491 minutes per week in Grades 1 to 6, inclusive, devoted to penmanship. In the Wisconsin survey the sum of the medians for these same grades totalled 279 minutes per week.⁴⁰ Both studies revealed much variation among school systems in the time allotted to handwriting instruction, some schools giving more than five times as much time as others. Time economies in teaching the three R's have resulted from improved methods and materials without impairing children's achievement.

The second trend pertains to administrative control over time allotments. School systems are permitting individual schools greater freedom in the use of school time. In the 100 cities in 43 states visited by a team from the U. S. Office of Education in 1947-1948 only 35 school systems were requiring individual schools to adhere rigidly to time allotments

³⁹ C. H. Mann, *How Schools Use Their Time*, Contributions to Education, No. 333 (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928).

⁴⁰ Virgil E. Herrick, chairman, *Handwriting in Wisconsin* (Madison, School of Education, University of Wisconsin, 1951), p. 17.

recommended by the central office.⁴¹ In many of the other school systems in the group, the faculties of individual schools were encouraged to make local adaptations of whatever recommendations the central office staff had to make.

Decisions about time allotments are closely associated with the over-all organization for instruction and curriculum design. In departmentalized grades all or most of the class periods have to be of the same length. If each period is from 30 to 40 minutes in length, time allotments are likely to become distorted, depending upon the subject or combination of subjects assigned to a given teacher or class period. If spelling and penmanship are combined and taught in a given period, the time allocated to them may be out of line; if these subjects are taught every day, the total time allocated to them is too great; if they are taught on alternate days, the length of each period is out of accord with best practices for teaching these subjects. No doubt this example depicts an unrealistic extreme but it will serve to illustrate the point. Comparable difficulties may be encountered with one or more of the other subjects, particularly reading in the intermediate grades, which so frequently gets isolated from the content subjects.

Time allotment issues are also related to length of school day, bus schedules, and co-curricular activities. The importance of having all essential school activities take place during the officially scheduled school day means that some readjustments in the use of time must be made. Perhaps some teaching time could be saved if order could be made out of chaos regarding the adult-interest activities mentioned briefly in Chapters 1 and 3. The amount of class time consumed by ticket sales, essay and poster contests, special days and weeks, and scrap drives seems to be on the increase. Every such activity that is not an integral part of an ongoing instructional program requires special program adjustments and makes inroads on time otherwise allocated.

Current information on time allotments in elementary schools does not provide much tangible guidance to those who are facing the problem every day in their own schools. One reason why broad guide lines that might be applicable on a wide scale are not available is that the curriculum in each school should show some evidence of adaptation to its immediate clientele. Variations among school systems in emerging curriculum designs also cause deviations in time allotments. These two factors alone produce enough differences in how schools use their time so that broad generalizations become virtually impossible.

⁴¹ Effie G. Bathurst and others, *Organization and Supervision of Elementary Education in 100 Cities*, op. cit., p. 31.

PROGRAM ADJUSTMENTS FOR EXCEPTIONAL PUPILS

Every school in which serious efforts are made to meet individual differences makes some program adjustments for exceptional pupils. In some schools the adjustments are primarily of a curricular nature. Superior pupils are excused from certain activities and allowed to make deeper explorations into other topics of special interest or they may be asked to assume greater leadership responsibilities with reference to selected school activities; less able pupils may have their work adjusted to their needs or may be excused from certain enterprises. In other schools, in which enrollment and facilities permit, special program arrangements are made for hobby clubs, special-help classes, ability grouping, classes for handicapped pupils, and special classes for superior children. More will be said in a later chapter about provisions for exceptional pupils.

USE OF SPECIAL TEACHERS

The trend away from platoon and departmentalized schools toward the single-teacher-per-class type of organization makes the question of special teachers more acute than ever. What special teachers a school should have and how best to utilize their services are both controversial issues. On one side of the issue is the belief among many educational leaders that most regular classroom teachers could do more with such areas as music, art, and physical education than they now do if they would develop the will to do so and could be helped to acquire more confidence in themselves in working with children in these subjects. No doubt possibilities in this direction could be explored much further than has been done to date. Real progress is evident in school systems that are moving into broad fields or activity curricula which demand broadly integrated units. Summer workshops and extension courses in music, art, and physical education have helped many regular classroom teachers to augment their roles in these fields with confidence.

Specialists in art and music lean toward the viewpoint that general classroom teachers in kindergarten and primary grades can handle music and art satisfactorily in their own classes if they desire to do so and will equip themselves with some preparation in these two areas. This method of dealing with the problem becomes more feasible if teachers in these grades have periodic access to consultants with special training in art and music.

As children get into the intermediate grades they press for answers to technical questions and informational backgrounds that may be beyond the general classroom teacher. It is for this reason that there is a greater demand for special teachers in music and art in the intermediate than in

the primary grades. No doubt the ideal plan for using special music and art teachers in the intermediate grades is to have them serve as consultants and assistants to the homeroom teachers, the specialist actually teaching the classes only when the difficult and technical problems come up, and only in the presence of the homeroom teacher. Such a scheme could produce maximum curriculum integration. Many schools, however, cannot handle the problem this way because they have another problem which must also be solved. This other problem consists of finding ways whereby each homeroom teacher may have one period per day away from children. The misnamed but so-called "free period" is accepted practice in secondary schools; it is a time when teachers can have a breathing spell and attend to many other essential duties of teaching, such as preparation, planning, gathering instructional supplies, and conferences with colleagues or parents. It would be well if we abandoned the term "free period" and started talking about a "preparation and conference period."

A preparation and conference period is at least as essential (if not more so) in elementary as in secondary schools. The quality of teaching, the teacher's feeling of adequacy, and the psychological climate of classrooms would probably be greatly improved if such a period could be made available each day to every elementary school teacher. This is particularly true in schools in which the noon hour of lunch and rest is viewed as a teaching period and each teacher accompanies her class to the lunchroom. About the only way whereby an elementary school can provide a preparation and conference period for each teacher is to permit the teacher to leave the classroom when special teachers of music and art are scheduled to come in. This arrangement works out fairly well if the music and art teachers are scheduled to come to a room at the same time on alternate days. Although this plan is feasible and provides regular classroom teachers with a daily preparation and conference period, it does militate against extensive curriculum integration. The question resolves itself into choosing between two desired values.

If the school has a centralized library it is essential that a person with training in library science be assigned to it on a part- or full-time basis, depending upon the size of the school. How best to utilize the services of a librarian and the issues pertaining to the use of special teachers of physical education will be discussed in subsequent chapters.

Most small schools are financially unable to employ many, if any, special teachers. In order that children in small schools may have services comparable to those in larger schools, special care must be used in selecting teachers so that each has a special field of competence, such as music, art, library science, physical education, psychological testing, speech correction, or remedial reading. If the faculty is selected so that the various special competencies of the different individuals give a broad spread, the total school can be served reasonably well. Plans can usually be developed

whereby each teacher is given a schedule that will permit her to give some assistance to the others or to selected groups of pupils. When the desired variety of special talents cannot be obtained through the selection process, plans may be developed with the faculty as a whole whereby each teacher will develop a special area through summer school attendance.⁴² Such a scheme is most feasible in schools in which faculty tenure has reached a high level. Unfortunately the profession is still harassed by entirely too much turnover in the faculties of individual schools.

ALL-SCHOOL SCHEDULE ITEMS

All schools, regardless of size, have some activities for which time schedules must be developed which are appropriate to the activities themselves irrespective of other desirable curriculum integration possibilities. The lunch period is a good example of this type of activity. The lunch hour must be scheduled somewhere near the middle of the day and as near as possible to the times when children in different age groups are in need of food. Children in primary grades are more apt to get quite hungry by 11:00 or 11:30 unless mid-morning snacks are served. Older children can hold out longer before their hunger becomes sufficiently prominent to distract them from other interests. Lunch periods must therefore be scheduled when it is time for the different age groups to eat. Schools large enough to have a separate lunchroom must develop a staggered schedule according to which each class has its designated period for lunch. Such a schedule must be on an all-school basis and each teacher must fit the daily program of her room into the all-school lunch schedule. In other words, the all-school schedule for this activity supersedes the daily programs of individual teachers.

If a school has special teachers of music or art it is essential that each of such teachers have a full day's teaching schedule. The only way to secure such a schedule is to develop it cooperatively with all of the other teachers involved. When all the persons affected sit around a table to work out a schedule for a special teacher, each individual's preferences regarding time of day for music or art can be considered. Some compromises will usually have to be made, but each person is present so that all reasons for needed adjustments become known and understood. Invariably the necessity for an all-school schedule for special teachers causes music or art to be scheduled in some rooms at times when the least integration with the total curriculum can be achieved, but this is the penalty that must be paid for the privilege of having special teachers in these areas.

An all-school schedule for physical education is necessary if the play

⁴² For an elaboration of this idea, see Henry J. Otto, "Utilizing Teachers' Special Talents in Small Schools," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 23 (January, 1937), pp. 35-42.

space is limited and the different classes must use the playground on a staggered basis or if the school has a special teacher of physical education. In the latter case the schedule-making problem is similar to that for special teachers of music or art. When the school does not have a special teacher of physical education it is sometimes easier to locate the physical-education periods more nearly at the time of day when the children at the different grade levels need the kind of change of pace and change in activity that physical education can provide.

Schools which follow the practice of having regularly scheduled assembly programs usually develop a semester's schedule at the beginning of each term. To the extent that given groups of grades are usually included in each assembly program, the scheduled assembly programs constitute another example of an all-school schedule. Although assembly programs do not come each day, all grades involved in a given schedule must adjust to that schedule on the designated days. Special schedule-making problems connected with the use of the library will be treated in a subsequent chapter.

THE "CONTINUING TEACHER"

The term "continuing teacher" has sometimes been used to describe a practice whereby the teacher remains with or "moves up" with the same class for two or three consecutive years.⁴³ A kindergarten teacher might move up with the same group of pupils through the first or the first and second grades, or a fourth-grade teacher might move up with a group through the fifth or fifth and sixth grades. Recent years have brought much informal experimentation with the "continuing teacher" in various schools in all parts of the country. The idea, of course, is not new because it is the only plan possible in one- and two-teacher schools, that is, if the same teachers continue their appointments over a period of years. It is only the larger elementary schools, mostly the urban graded schools, that had gotten so far away from this practice that the idea is now appearing in the literature as an innovation in elementary-school organization.

No doubt the revival of interest in the possibilities of the "continuing teacher" idea stems from the child study and child development influence. Concern for continuity of children's development, maximum effort to facilitate children's adjustment and security, extensive teacher knowledge of each child's total developmental pattern, home background, and needs, and continuity of home-school relations has helped to bring about new interest in greater continuity of contact between the same child and the same teacher. There seems to be little doubt that all of the values claimed

⁴³ Aileen W. Robinson, "Should Teachers Be Promoted Too?" *Journal of the National Education Association*, Vol. 42 (January, 1953), pp. 26-28.

for the "continuing teacher" accrue to teacher and pupils if all the factors in the local situation make for the success of the plan.⁴⁴

Different patterns could be followed in managing the "continuing teacher" plan in an elementary school. If a two-year cycle of teacher rotation were used, first- and second-grade teachers, third- and fourth-grade teachers, and fifth- and sixth-grade teachers would constitute the rotating teams. In a three-year cycle there would be only two rotating teams and each teacher would take a class group for three consecutive years, returning at the end of that time to pick up a beginning class in her cycle. Either scheme of rotation would net most of the values inherent in the plan. Schools which are experimenting with ungraded primary units or intermediate-grade units are striving for and undoubtedly obtain some of the same values.

There are many problems, however, which harass the principal of an elementary school in which the "continuing teacher" plan is in vogue. What do you do if you have one or more teachers who are so enamored over teaching the same grade each year that they do not wish to be in a rotating team? What if you have an unequal number of sections at different grade levels? It is not uncommon for a school to have three sections of the third grade this year but only two, or maybe four, sections next year. What do you do if some teachers are much stronger teachers than others and parents recognize the fact and object to having their children with the same teacher for more than one year? Does the rate of teacher turnover upset the plan so much that it is difficult to maintain any reasonable degree of the continuity sought? These are but a few of the more common problems which arise. Many of them can be solved in whole or in part over a period of years through carefully chosen administrative and supervisory activities. No doubt the difficulties en route should not deter local schools from striving for a practice that has much merit, but movement in such a direction should be undertaken realistically.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR PROGRAM-MAKING

Each school needs to evolve a program under which the life of the school may go forward in accordance with the conditions prevailing in that school. There is no one best program for all schools. There are some guiding principles, however, in terms of which a local program may be planned and evaluated.

The most important thought to bear in mind is that the organization for instruction should facilitate teachers' application with children of the

⁴⁴ Edith F. Miller, "Two Years with the Same Teacher," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 49 (May-June, 1949), pp. 531-535.

philosophy, purposes, and the kind of curriculum which have been developed or adopted for the school. The schedule of activities and the selection and assignment of teachers, as well as other administrative practices, should grow out of and be determined by the educational program to be carried out with children; teachers' daily schedules, how they teach, and how they work and deal with children should not be the victim of an ill-conceived organization for instruction which caters to administrative convenience and efficiency at the expense of the quality of instruction. This principle is rather broad and all-inclusive, yet it is fundamental and controls in part the extent to which the various elements in program-making can be applied effectively.

If individual differences are actually to be recognized in school practice, the daily or weekly program of classroom teachers must be planned to give the teacher the occasion and the time to reach individuals and small groups. Some schools are meeting this need by providing longer and more flexible periods and permitting teachers to vary the program and time allotment according to the needs of their pupils. Courses of study and supervisory procedures are rich with helpful suggestions for classroom management when several groups of pupils of varying abilities are simultaneously directed by the same teacher. Proposed topics for enrichment, together with the necessary materials, are made available for teachers and pupils. Some schools find it desirable to schedule an additional daily period for diagnostic and remedial work as well as clubs and special-interest classes.

The longer daily periods and flexible time allotments make it easier to develop sustained interest in significant themes, units of work, or centers of interest; to develop and exploit pupil interests; and to participate in excursions, construction projects, and other activities which are hardly possible if the day is divided into a series of 10- or 20-minute periods. Frequently it has been found desirable to reduce the total number of different subject titles appearing on the schedule of recitations, thus building the curriculum around larger and more significant units of work which, in the process of execution, would embody related knowledge and activities. To obtain the total weekly time allotment which is desired for each subject, if many separate subjects are retained, some schools prefer to alternate subjects for the various days of the week, rather than to have daily short periods.

There are two groups of activities for which it may be desirable to establish a systematic daily routine. One group consists of events which concern the other children in the school, such as using the playground, gymnasium, library, shop, or other special rooms, and periods in which the help of special teachers (such as art and music) is used. The second group consists largely of events which relate particularly to the establishment of health habits. This group includes such items as periods for lunches, rest, physical recreation, and lavatory visits.

A free period each day, frequently at the opening of school in the morning, has been found very useful by some teachers. During this time pupils are given special opportunity for creative self-expression or to exploit some interests which may have been generated the previous day or at home. Children bring in and prepare, display, or discuss materials they have brought from home or the library. Much has been written about the need for encouraging creative self-expression, but few programs show that school practice has provided for it.

Additional guiding principles are: subjects making similar demands on pupils should be alternated with subjects of a different type to avoid fatigue and monotony; subjects which are closely related in content should be arranged so that the work can be integrated; subjects requiring the finer muscular coordinations, like penmanship and drawing, should not come immediately after physical-education periods; physical education should not follow immediately after lunch periods.

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Organization for Supervision

EVERY SCHOOL AND SCHOOL SYSTEM, urban and rural, should have a plan whereby the abilities of all available persons are marshaled for use in the continuous improvement of the educational services in the community. Education dare not remain static in a country in which the culture of the people is changing. The constantly changing character of civilization and the rapid progress of educational research make it imperative that school systems have an organization through which professional leadership capacities are released, developed, and coordinated for the improvement of the educational experiences provided for the successive groups of children which pass through the schools.

No one is required in this country to be a teacher. Those who choose to teach ought to be aware of the fact that the act of joining the teaching profession carries with it, automatically, the personal responsibility for continuous active participation in local, state, and national school improvement efforts. Certain parallels with other professional groups seem pertinent here. A local community is dependent upon its physicians for improvement in medical care and the facilities therefor. Each citizen expects his physician to keep himself abreast of new discoveries in medicine, drugs, and surgical procedures. The consumer expects his physician to make available to him the best that modern medicine has to offer. If the consumer has any suspicion that his physician is not up to date in the frontiers of medical practice, he is apt to seek a different physician. The citizens also expect the physicians of the community to advise them of modern trends and local needs in hospital and laboratory facilities and services so that the community may equip itself to enable its physicians to render the best modern medical care. Invariably each new hospital or laboratory that is built is designed and equipped so that the frontiers of modern medicine may accrue to the benefit of the people. The community expects and usually gets leadership in these directions from its physicians and public health workers.

What has been said about the leadership role and community expectations of physicians could be duplicated for dentists, engineers, electricians, and other professional and semi-professional groups, including teachers.

The community has a right to expect leadership in education from its professional staff in the schools. Everyone engaged in school work should recognize and eagerly accept this responsibility and opportunity. School systems are under obligation to create the organization and facilities through which the professional staff of the schools can render this service to the community. Every member of a school faculty should be a continuous participant in local school improvement projects. To make such participation possible and effective is the function of administration as well as of supervision.

MODERN CONCEPTS IN ADMINISTRATION

The changing character of the administrative or executive function, coupled with the growth and changing character of supervision, makes it imperative that each of these concepts be understood clearly and that their relationships be viewed in new light. In the operation of schools today it is difficult, if not impossible, to draw fine distinctions between administrative, supervisory, and leadership functions. Although there are some activities which fall clearly in one or another of these categories, there are an endless number of activities which overlap two or more of the rubrics. The history of supervision shows how in the early period supervisory responsibilities were gradually attached to the administrative, clerical, and other duties associated with the office of superintendent of schools.¹ Thus from an early period there was no clear-cut distinction between the administrative duties and what might more logically be called supervisory activities. As school systems grew in size and various assistants were added to the superintendent's office, division of labor and delegation of responsibility gradually led to the creation of the field of supervision. Although professional literature has attempted to clarify the meaning of the term *supervision*,² and studies have been made showing the distribution of time of various school officials to administration, supervision, and other activities,³ it is not always certain that the duties have been properly classified.

The recent literature in school administration reveals three emphases which are pertinent to this discussion. One of these is to clarify the meaning and role of administration. Moehlman, in taking a functional view of administration, conceives of the "executive activity" as consisting of a

¹ F. C. Ayer and A. S. Barr, *The Organization of Supervision* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1928), Ch. I.

² *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision*, Eighth Yearbook (Washington, Department of Superintendence of the N.E.A., 1930), Ch. I.

³ *The Elementary-School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, Twenty-seventh Yearbook (Washington, Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A., 1948), Ch. VII; A. S. Barr, W. H. Burton, and L. J. Brueckner, *Supervision*, 2d ed. (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1947), Ch. 1.

series of 12 closely related and complementary specializations, each of which has both operation and growth aspects. One of the 12 sub-activities is administration and is described as follows: ⁴

Administration may be considered as those activities concerned with: (1) planning a system which carries out the policies of the board of education in providing the most advantageous physical, financial, and educational conditions; (2) selecting, assigning and coordinating agents under this adopted plan; (3) maintaining these policies in continuous effective operation; (4) providing channels through which information about conditions may be promptly transmitted from the field to the central office; (5) providing channels through which all agents and agencies of the school system shall work for continuous improvement; and (6) furnishing leadership.

Sears, in his analysis of the nature of the administrative process, introduces his discussion of the meaning of the term *administration* with the following paragraph: ⁵

The field of school administration is relatively new as a special realm of study, though the practice is almost as old as civilization. In common usage, the term administration is roughly synonymous with that of management. In its proper use in education, it contains much that we mean by the word government and is closely related in content to such words as superintendence, supervision, planning, oversight, direction, organization, control, guidance, and regulation. Besides referring to the process or activity of managing people and materials, the term is regularly used to designate the person or persons, the officials, in charge of the activity.

In his analysis Sears then discusses the topic in terms of (1) planning, (2) organization, (3) directing, (4) coordination, and (5) control as elements in the administrative process.⁶ Pittenger, in a similar vein, takes a broad view of school administration. He defines it as: ⁷

The selection, appointment, and assignment of the school's employed personnel, and the coordination and leadership of all school-associated personnel—employees, pupils, board members, and members of the community—in creating, executing, and improving policies which make for sound and efficient education. Personnel—its procurement, coordination, and leadership—is one main element in this definition. Policies—their creation, implementation, and improvement—comprise another. Achievement of sound educational goals is the third.

⁴ Arthur B. Moehlman, *School Administration*, 2d ed. (Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1951), p. 84. Quoted by permission of and arrangement with the publishers.

⁵ By permission from *The Nature of the Administrative Process*, by Jesse B. Sears, p. 4. Copyright, 1950. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

⁶ *Ibid.*, Chs. 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6, respectively.

⁷ By permission from *Local Public School Administration*, by Benjamin F. Pittenger, p. 7. Copyright, 1951. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

Throughout the efforts in recent literature to clarify the meaning of the administrative function, certain basic ideas appear again and again. Administration involves leadership with faculty, school board, and lay groups in projecting, planning, and implementing school programs, in policy formation by the school board, in interpreting and executing the laws which govern school operations in a given locality. Administration represents an executive activity in putting laws and local school board policies into operation. This is achieved through the selection, appointment, and assignment of personnel and in creating, executing, and improving policies, organization, and operational procedures. Administration operates at the policy formation and decision-making level with reference to all matters which pertain to providing and operating those facilities and services deemed essential to the proper operation of the instructional program which a given school is to provide for its pupils. All who engage in these several executive activities are participants in the administration of the schools.

The expansion of democratic procedures in administration is the second emphasis in the recent literature on school administration. Although some administrators have always used democratic methods in dealing with other persons, general recognition of the absolute necessity for democratic practices in school administration did not prevail until very recent years. Clear recognition of the fact that schools in a democratic culture must educate for democracy if the culture is to survive, that competence in democratic behavior can be acquired best through participation and practice, and that teachers, to be skillful in education for democracy, must have opportunity to experience democracy in those things which are of vital concern to them, has given new significance to the place of democratic procedures in school administration.

Two quotations from the 1952 Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators are pertinent here:

⁸ Democracy in the school means first and foremost that everyone must have freedom within reason. In Grade I children may discuss which of two doors they should use when coming into the room and will ordinarily arrive at a reasonable answer. Our better schools provide hundreds of such situations. At the junior high-school level in the study of the topic, for example, "Securing Our Water Supply," the young people may very well list the questions they would like to have answered. To do so does not mean that the teacher abdicates, but rather that he adds to the list of questions the important ones not brought out by the young people.

Similarly, in school administration democracy implies that classroom teachers should have a voice in developing the major policies which affect their personal welfare and comfort. It means elected representative committees to confer with the superintendents on matters of tenure, salary, sick leave, and the like. It

⁸ American Association of School Administrators, *The American School Superintendency*, Thirtieth Yearbook (Washington, N.E.A., 1952), p. 14.

also means that the superintendent deliberately seeks the cooperation of teachers in the preparation of curriculum materials.

⁹ Administration is concerned with getting things done. As the process of education moves along, someone has to observe the progress being made, reassign personnel, provide new resources, and guide the machinery whereby all teachers work together for a common purpose. In every school system people and things must be set in motion to provide various types of instructional programs, to purchase needed supplies, to acquire competent personnel, to safeguard the safety of pupils, and to manage hundreds of situations. All of these processes require that decisions be made.

Democratic administration is the involvement of as many of the persons in the organization in decision-making as it is feasible or possible to do. It is imperative that classroom teachers share in the process wherever instruction or teacher welfare is involved.

But it is obviously impossible to call a town meeting to discuss every issue of concern to those employed in a school system. Some form of organization is necessary to provide a flow of ideas, to allow decisions to be made as near where problems arise as is possible, to provide channels of communication, and to define responsibilities for decision-making at decentralized points. Parenthetically, it may be said that most school systems are highly centralized organizations. And, in far too many school systems too many decisions are made in the central office and too few in the individual schools located thruout the community.

In thinking of administration as basically decision-making, and in building an organization to facilitate democratic administration, the principles of *span of control*, *delegation*, and *leadership* are essential concepts.

The third emphasis in the recent literature in school administration is that of leadership. The trend toward greater democracy in school administration requires a type and degree of leadership quite different from the administrative abilities and techniques essential to a more autocratic form of management. It is only natural, therefore, that greater emphasis upon democracy in administration should be paralleled with new insights into the nature and functions of leadership.

Although the nature of leadership is so complex as to defy specific definition and analysis, certain general features are evident. The very complexity of leadership makes it imperative that a large repertoire of principles and techniques be encompassed by its total working basis so that appropriate combinations of procedures may be utilized in varying situations. Those who seek simple formulas for effective democratic leadership will be disappointed. It is seldom that leadership is entirely autocratic or entirely democratic; usually one finds varying intermixtures of these two extreme approaches. Leadership has little chance to operate unless certain conditions prevail. Leadership flourishes only in a controversial situation, that is, in circumstances wherein a difficult choice is to be made. Leadership can be exercised fully only when there are followers. In a democracy we prize the type of leadership which obtains its followers

⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 68-69.

by reason rather than by trickery or force. The goal of democratic leadership is the cooperative participation of all concerned, the full assumption of appropriate responsibility by each member of the cooperating group, the genuine manifestation by each member of a deep-seated belief in a wholesome philosophy of democratic effort, and efficiency in the operation of agreed-upon policies and procedures.

Leadership, to be democratic, must abide by certain assumptions and principles. In the first place, there must be a basic belief in the greater wisdom of the group than in any one person. With this assumption in mind, policies and procedures should be developed through group participation. Cooperative effort must provide for specialization of function; because policies are derived by the group does not mean that everyone has to do everything, or that all should do the same thing. Efficient operation is not incompatible with democratic procedure. There is some evidence to support the contention that thoroughly democratic methods improve efficiency because they instill purposeful activity, greater individual comprehension of the problems, and greater personal concern for the success of the plans agreed upon by the group.

MODERN CONCEPTS IN SUPERVISION

Supervision, in its infancy, was concerned primarily with inspection to maintain such standards as existed. In those days supervision was autocratic and followed a rule-of-thumb procedure. Since that time, however, significant changes have taken place in the philosophy and techniques of supervision. Although some of the changes were under way by 1914, the inspectional and domineering features of supervision are still evident in what has become known as the first definition which was helpful in pointing out the scope of modern supervision. This definition, given by Elliott, characterizes supervisory control as being concerned with *what* should be taught, *when* it should be taught, *to whom*, *by whom*, *how*, and *to what purpose*.¹⁰

Anyone at all familiar with recent literature and viewpoints in supervision can recognize at once the tremendous change which has taken place since Elliott's statement was made in 1914. Current thinking about the role of supervision is well summarized in the following quotation from the work of Barr, Burton, and Brueckner:¹¹

Supervision is in general what it has been in modern times, an expert technical service primarily concerned with studying and improving the conditions that surround learning and pupil growth. Everything in a school system

¹⁰ E. C. Elliott, *City School Supervision* (Yonkers, N. Y., World Book Co., 1914), p. 12.

¹¹ Barr, Burton, and Brueckner, *op. cit.*, pp. 11-12. Reprinted by permission of and arrangement with the publisher.

is designed, of course, for the ultimate purpose of stimulating learning and growth. Supervision deals with those items which primarily and rather directly condition learning and growth.

Supervision is leadership and the development of leadership within groups which are cooperatively:

1. Evaluating the Educational Product in the Light of Accepted Objectives of Education
 - a. The cooperative determination and critical analysis of aims
 - b. The selection and application of the means of appraisal
 - c. The analysis of the data to discover strength and weakness in the product
2. Studying the Teaching-Learning Situation to Determine the Antecedents of Satisfactory and Unsatisfactory Pupil Growth and Achievement
 - a. Studying the course of study and the curriculum-in-operation
 - b. Studying the materials of instruction, the equipment, and the socio-physical environment of learning and growth
 - c. Studying the factors related to instruction (the teachers' personality, academic and professional training, techniques)
 - d. Studying the factors present in the learner (capacity, interest, work habits, etc.)
3. Improving the Teaching-Learning Situation
 - a. Improving the course of study and the curriculum-in-operation
 - b. Improving the materials of instruction, the equipment, and the socio-physical environment of learning and growth
 - c. Improving the factors related directly to instruction
 - d. Improving factors present in the learner which affect his growth and achievement
4. Evaluating the Objectives, Methods, and Outcomes of Supervision
 - a. Discovering and applying the techniques of evaluation
 - b. Evaluating the results of given supervisory programs, including factors which limit the success of these programs
 - c. Evaluating and improving the personnel of supervision

Similar viewpoints on supervision are stated by other writers. Wiles opened his treatise on supervision by saying that the basic function of supervision is to improve the learning situation for children.¹² Melchoir phrased his concept of supervision in a clear and terse paragraph:¹³

Currently, supervision aims at the growth of not only pupil and teacher but also of the supervisory staff itself as well as parents and other laymen. Supervision is concerned with everything that directly concerns the further development of every member of the faculty and student body toward physical and social competence. It is also concerned with (but not so directly responsible for) those factors that are but indirectly related to their growth.

¹² Kimball Wiles, *Supervision for Better Schools* (New York, Prentice-Hall, 1950), p. 3.

¹³ William T. Melchoir, *Instructional Supervision* (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1950, pp. 9-10. Quoted by permission of and arrangement with the publisher.

To the major functions of supervision as stated or implied in the preceding quotations the reader may wish to add others which are not readily classified under the captions listed above. In any event these added functions will probably be related in an important way to the problem of instruction and, if properly carried on, may be an aid in improving instruction. In order that any and all of the functions of supervision may be carried out in a desirable manner much help has been obtained by supervisors from the development and application of general principles under which supervision might proceed. An excellent formulation of such principles was prepared by the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction as early as 1930.¹⁴ More recent outlines of principles of supervision may be found in the sources previously quoted and in a special bulletin prepared by Ayer and Peckham.¹⁵ The latter authors classified 291 supervisory practices under 10 leading principles of supervision.

In recent years leaders in supervision have given much thought to the place of democratic procedures, cooperation, and leadership in supervision. If supervision is to operate in harmony with the dominant aim of education in a democracy, a democratic relationship must exist between teachers and pupils. This can hardly be achieved if the relationship between supervisors and teachers is undemocratic. As in administration, supervision must provide for group participation in the definition of problems and in the development of plans for dealing with those problems. There cannot exist the superior-subordinate type of relationship. It must be a psychological atmosphere in which teachers and supervisors manifest a mutual interest in problems, have a mutual concern for the improvement of practices, and participate cooperatively in arriving at better solutions. Each must respect the sincerity of purpose and personality integrity of the other, and recognize that each member of the group has valuable contributions to make. It is again a problem of marshalling all of the available resources in the interest of improved educational services to the community. Professional leadership is the kind of leadership which makes this type of democratic, cooperative working together a reality in the local school.

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

Although administration and supervision are distinctive concepts and each has its peculiar role in the total operational picture, it is clearly evident that there are important relationships between them. Since adminis-

¹⁴ Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the N.E.A., *Current Problems of Supervision*, Third Yearbook (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930), pp. 8-9.

¹⁵ Fred C. Ayer and Dorothy R. Peckham, *A Check List for Planning and Appraising Supervision, Classified under Ten Leading Principles of Supervision* (Austin, Texas, The Steck Co., 1948).

tration, along with its other functions, is responsible for the character, quality, and continuous improvement of the instructional program, administration must see to it that the supervisory function is fulfilled. Administration, therefore, must create an organization for supervision, employ, assign, direct, and supervise the supervisors. Basic to, and inherent in, these administrative acts is the development of a philosophy of supervision, the allocation of supervisory responsibilities, and at least a general description of supervisor's activities and staff relationships. All of this means that supervision is an arm of administration and that the total organization for supervision must be an integral part of the administrative organization for the school system as a whole.

Administration and supervision are related in another important way because many supervisory activities are performed by persons whose primary designation is that of administrator and many administrative functions are performed by persons designated as supervisors. It is difficult to decide whether certain activities should be classified as administrative or supervisory, and there is probably no special point in wasting time trying to get hair-splitting distinctions. More important is the need for a cooperatively determined scheme for sharing responsibilities. After an analysis of numerous studies in which endeavors had been made to classify administrative and supervisory activities, Barr, Burton, and Brueckner called attention to the overlap and then postulated the following items to help in clarifying thinking on this issue: ¹⁶

1. Practically all supervisory duties are performed at one time or another by administrative officers. Many administrative duties are performed from time to time by supervisory officers.
2. A number of duties are difficult to classify as one or the other despite restricted definitions of administration and supervision.
3. Certain duties stand out as practically impossible to classify strictly under one or the other: curriculum construction, securing texts and other instructional materials, selecting the teaching staff, furthering the growth and welfare of the staff, testing or evaluating outcomes, child accounting.
4. Great but not complete agreement exists among competent judges as to duties which are deemed of major and of minor importance.
5. Duties judged to be of major importance were in the main performed by a majority of administrative and supervisory officers.
6. A considerable number of duties judged to be of minor importance were being performed by a majority of school officers.
7. The fact that a duty is widely performed is not a safe basis for judging its importance.
8. Great differences exist between administrators not alone in their sharing of supervisory duties but in their control of supervisory officers and duties.
9. Great need is shown for devising principles and mechanisms to provide for cooperative shared responsibilities and activities.

¹⁶ *Op. cit.*, p. 34.

The overlapping of administrative and supervisory activities in the same person is exemplified in several other ways. In a small school system the superintendent of schools may have to assume all administrative as well as all supervisory functions. It would be rather confusing if he were expected to classify each of his acts as administrative or supervisory. A comparable example is that of the principal of a school within a larger school system. The modern trend in administration *and* supervision is to allocate to the principal major supervisory responsibilities. Wherever this is done the same individual, by deliberate intent, serves as administrator and as supervisor.

A third important relationship between administration and supervision grows out of the fact that many administrative problems cannot be solved wisely without consulting the area of instruction, which is the primary concern of supervision. Administration is responsible for providing school buildings, books and instructional supplies, selection and appointment of teachers, among other things. But what kind of teachers for what kind of an instructional program? What type and size of classrooms with what kind of facilities for what kind of instructional program? What kinds of books and what kinds of instructional supplies? These and many other issues to be decided and acted on by administration must be resolved in terms of the facilities required by the instructional program which supervisors are developing with teachers. Unless there are intimate working relationships between administration and supervision, buildings may be built which not only do not fit but actually impede the full expression of the curriculum and books are purchased which teachers cannot use. It is lack of coordination between administration and supervision which frequently causes the administration to select teachers with preparation unsuited to their assignments, to establish policies for school excursions unsuited to the curricular role of excursions, or to build classrooms that hinder rather than help the instructional program.

Although administration and supervision are related in several important ways, it is probably well to remember that the processes of supervision are somewhat different from the processes of administration. The latter, in its roles of policy formation, decision making, direction, and oversight, may not always have the teaching-learning elements so basic to supervision. Sears, in his effort to distinguish clearly between administration and supervision, makes quite a point of the idea that modern supervision is essentially a teaching function, the learners being the adults that make up the school staff.¹⁷ Supervision, according to this concept, has as its peculiar province the promotion and guidance of learning by those immediately responsible for the school's instructional program. The psychology and

¹⁷ Jesse B. Sears, *Public School Administration* (New York, The Ronald Press, 1947), Ch. 12.

methodology of supervision should therefore be consistent with good teaching, the objective of which is the growth and development of the learner. This thought is quite consistent with modern concepts of supervision. The point at which the distinction must not be carried to extreme is when some administrative problems should be resolved by the same processes as are recommended for the solution of instructional problems.

Let us suppose that the administrator must produce the design and specifications for some new classrooms. He desires to design the most modern functional classroom that will make maximum contribution toward full expression of the school's curriculum. A wise decision on classroom design cannot be made without the participation of teachers, principals, and supervisors. The latter groups, in order to participate effectively, must engage in study, research, and deliberation. The activity holds much promise for the professional growth of the participants. The administrator's purpose in soliciting the participation of these groups was twofold, to get a good classroom design and to promote the professional growth of the participants. Since the teaching-learning element was as important as the decision on the design of the classroom, the procedures were essentially those of supervision. Perhaps the whole issue can be resolved by such viewpoints as these. Some administrative problems, if resolved by participatory methods, hold as much promise for achieving supervisory objectives as supervisory problems do. Some administrative problems should be resolved only through participatory procedures. Whenever administrative problems hold supervisory potential and should be resolved by participatory procedures, the methods for resolving them should be the same or similar to those which characterize sound supervisory procedures. These general guideposts should be particularly helpful to elementary-school principals who frequently find it difficult to classify an activity as administrative or supervisory.

THE FIELD OF SUPERVISION

The need for and the values of supervision have led school systems to attach increasing importance to supervision. As supervision has grown in number of school systems which employed supervisors and in the number of supervisors employed, the field of supervision has grown as an essential phase of modern school administration. This growth of supervision has been accompanied by the gradual appearance of an extensive literature, research, and theory. It can now be said that there is a distinct literature on supervision and that there is a professional field of supervision. The unique province of this field is the instructional program of the school and supervision's primary concern is the improvement of the instructional services to children, and the coordination of the parts of the instructional

program and the efforts of all who work at instruction. One thus hears such terms as "instructional supervisors" or "instructional leaders" which give further emphasis to the notion that supervision's primary sphere of operations is the school's instructional program. This does not mean that supervision or supervisors do not also have other concerns, some of which may be administrative.

The basic function of supervision is to improve the character, quality, and quantity of children's learning. To achieve this objective, supervision focuses upon the improvement of teaching-learning situations. Since classroom teachers are the ones in direct charge of teaching-learning situations, supervision deals with teachers to assist them in improving teaching-learning situations. Since some factors which influence teaching-learning situations are outside of the teacher's jurisdiction, supervision must also concern itself with these other factors.

Because the improvement and coordination of the instructional program is the primary function of supervision, supervisors spend most of their time working in various ways with those who are involved in the instructional program. Supervisors work with beginning teachers who have just graduated from college, with experienced teachers who are new staff members in a given school system, and with experienced teachers who have been on the local school staff for one or more years. Sometimes these relationships are on an individual person-to-person basis, whereas most of the contacts are through various types of group situations. The objective throughout is the improvement of the instructional program through the in-service professional development of the supervisor and the supervised.

The resources utilized in promoting in-service professional development are numerous. Sometimes the content of conversations with individuals is helpful to both parties to the conversation. At other times one person can help another by direct suggestion, by observing another teacher at work, or by providing the other person with hitherto unknown or unavailable materials. Sometimes directed professional reading or specific types of advanced study in college are very useful. Attending local, state, or national conferences are highly motivating and informational. No doubt the most widely used channel for promoting the in-service professional development of the staff consists of staff participation in local school improvement programs. Since most supervisory programs rely heavily on the latter channel, considerable attention will be given to this avenue in the discussion which follows.¹⁸

¹⁸ It is hoped that the preceding discussion which has highlighted supervision's responsibility for the instructional program will not mislead the reader into an unduly narrow concept of the scope of supervision. The intent here was merely to point up the primary function of supervision.

THE FOCI OF LOCAL SUPERVISORY PROGRAMS

Supervision's concern with the instructional program is not a new trend in supervision, but the way in which supervisors work in their efforts to improve and coordinate the instructional program is radically different from what it was two or more decades ago. The full realization that fundamental and enduring improvements in curriculum and instruction could come about only as teachers expanded their competence and skill in many directions brought new insight into the role and procedures of supervision. It became clear that supervision must focus upon the in-service professional development of the teaching staff. In the thinking of some people, supervision became synonymous with leadership in in-service education.¹⁹ Although supervision may also deal with other problems, it is evident that in-service education has become an increasingly important focus in current supervisory programs.

As the interest in teacher education in service broadened, it soon became apparent that the problem of teacher education could not be approached in narrow fashion or deal only with restricted aspects of a teacher's work. The increasingly complex role of education in modern society required teachers with broad horizons and many general as well as specific competencies. *Significant* modern school programs called for teachers with vision, leadership, and courage. Supervision, therefore, has been forced to concern itself with many issues and problems formerly thought of as "teacher education" but not necessarily as part of supervision. Supervisors have been drawn into an examination of the expanding recent literature on teacher education.²⁰ Study, appraisal, and experimentation in the broad as well as the narrower aspects of teacher education constitute a second important focus in modern supervisory programs. The earmarks of good teacher education practices must be identified and utilized in local supervisory programs. Local school leaders need to cooperate with colleges to improve pre-service preparation as well as the college's role in in-service education.

In-service education implies growth, learning, and development of the participants. Adults, too, find learning more efficient and fruitful if the learning activities conform to sound psychological principles. The role of needs, interests, personalized problems, cooperative planning, and prob-

¹⁹ Walter A. Anderson, "Modern Supervision Is In-Service Education," *Education*, Vol. 47 (December, 1946), pp. 199-204; Lester M. Emans, "In-Service Education of Teachers Through Cooperative Curriculum Study," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 41 (May, 1948), pp. 695-702.

²⁰ Charles E. Prall and C. Leslie Cushman, *Teacher Education In Service* (Washington, American Council on Education, 1944); Laura Zirbes, *Teachers for Today's Schools* (Washington, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development of the N.E.A., 1951).

lem solving is as significant for adults as for children. Teachers' needs and problems lie in their jobs as teachers, their desire to render the best possible service to children, and their desire to be a part of continually improving school programs. It was very logical, therefore, to use these teacher concerns as the springboard and the vehicle around which to build in-service education programs.²¹ Curriculum revision, improvement of classroom procedures, child study, and various kinds of school improvement projects seem to be wisely chosen areas around which to build in-service programs. To some degree supervision, in-service education, and curriculum improvement (including other associated school improvement projects) become almost synonymous concepts. At any rate it can be said with certainty that curriculum improvement has become an important focus in supervision. This trend has been accompanied by an extensive new literature on the curriculum²² and a new literature on the use of curriculum revision as a vehicle for in-service education.²³

The desire to operate in democratic ways is a fourth focus in current supervisory programs. The fact that learning is more effective if the learner has a part in choosing, planning, participating, and evaluating learning activities makes it imperative that teachers participate in these aspects of an in-service education program. Furthermore, if teachers are to teach the ideals, values, and techniques of democracy to their pupils, it is important that the teachers have opportunity to live and practice democratic ways. The importance of utilizing democratic procedures in supervision thus stems from the three foci previously described as well as from the fundamental orientation of our culture and our educational programs. The democratic focus in supervision has been under way long enough to produce distinctive literature and extensive application in local practice.²⁴

The four preceding emphases in supervision logically lead to two other foci, the first of which is wide use of group processes. In earlier days

²¹ Henry Antell, "An Inventory of Teacher Interests As a Guide Toward Their Improvement In Service," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 31 (January, 1945), pp. 37-44; Henry Antell, "An Inventory of Teachers' Understandings As a Guide Toward Their Improvement In Service," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 31 (September, 1945), pp. 359-366.

²² See footnotes and selected bibliography in Ch. 3.

²³ Edward A. Krug, *Curriculum Planning* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1950); Hollis L. Caswell and associates, *Curriculum Improvement in Public School Systems* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950); Ruth Cunningham and associates, *Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1951); Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Toward A New Curriculum*, 1944 Yearbook; *Toward Better Teaching*, 1949 Yearbook; and *Action for Curriculum Improvement*, 1951 Yearbook (Washington, N.E.A.).

²⁴ G. Robert Koopman, Alice Miel, and Paul J. Misner, *Democracy in School Administration* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1943); Clyde M. Campbell, ed., *Practical Applications of Democratic Administration* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1952).

supervision operated largely in relation to teachers as individuals. Concern for the individual teacher and work with individuals still continues, but, in addition, much of the supervisory program moves forward through activities in which groups of various sizes participate. There is much of the "we are working on these things" and hence many and varied projects carried on cooperatively by several persons. Invariably the supervisor is one of the "we" to which reference is made. The very nature of these co-operative ventures makes it important that careful attention be given to group processes.²⁵

Democratic procedures making extensive use of group processes would naturally lead to increased attention to human relations. If teachers are going to participate with administrators and supervisors in cooperative ventures that will provide in-service professional development for them, and result in improved school programs, it is essential that they work with each other in ways that are mutually satisfying. Dealing with each other on a high plane of human relations is basic to the success of a modern supervisory program. Fine human relations may thus be identified as a sixth focus in supervision.²⁶

A seventh focus in current supervisory programs is the dual concern for classroom teaching and the pupils who participate therein. When supervisors dealt so extensively with teachers as individuals there was the tendency to center upon the individual teacher and her acts in the classroom. Now the emphasis is more impersonal in that the needs and problems of children and ways of meeting their needs have become the center of attention. Instead of talking about what the teacher did or did not do the tendency is to discuss ways of studying children, the implications which the information about children has for teaching, how the classroom environment can be re-structured to make learning more significant, and what added materials can be secured to meet individual differences better. Good ways of working with children are discussed in individual and group conferences, and individual teachers are encouraged to adapt ideas to their own situations and to experiment with a variety of techniques. The teacher no longer is forced to be on the defensive about her own teaching; together we are striving for and experimenting with improved ways of serving children. The earmarks of effective ways of working with children are being sought constantly. The emphasis is upon improving teaching on the assumption that an improved teacher will be the automatic by-product of improved teaching.

²⁵ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Group Planning in Education*, 1945 Yearbook, and *Group Processes in Supervision*, 1948 Yearbook (Washington, N.E.A.); Nathaniel F. Cantor, *Learning Through Discussion* (Buffalo, N. Y., Human Relations for Industry, 1951).

²⁶ K. D. Benne and Bozidar Muntyon, *Human Relations in Curriculum Change* (New York, The Dryden Press, 1951); Wilbur A. Yauch, *Improving Human Relations in School Administration* (New York, Harper and Bros., 1949).

THE PSYCHOLOGICAL SETTING FOR EFFECTIVE TEACHER GROWTH IN SERVICE

The best learning and the broadest kind of development takes place when persons engage themselves in purposeful problem-solving activities which are significant to them. This is but another way of saying that the psychological fundamentals of experience units provide the best setting for learning. This generalization holds true for adults as well as children. Consequently teacher participation in curriculum improvement activities should have characteristics similar to the psychological features of experience units. Perhaps it is not straining a point too far to say that school improvement projects should be experience units for teachers.

For teachers to have this kind of a psychological orientation for their participation in school improvement projects, they must have a genuine personalized feeling of responsibility for the character and quality of the school program. Teachers cannot enter wholeheartedly into curriculum revision or other school improvement activities as long as they feel that someone else is responsible for the program. Genuine concern and a vital interest seldom arise unless one has and feels major or full responsibility. Therefore a supervisory program must be conducted in such a way that teachers begin to recognize the school program as theirs; i.e., teachers must recognize that they are the agents who carry responsibility for the character and quality of the school's program. Actually this is the way it is anyhow because no school program has risen above the vision and competence of teachers.

Recognizing teacher responsibility for the instructional program and working in ways which will lead teachers to feel that responsibility are significant issues in supervision. Heretofore it has not been uncommon for school systems to hold supervisors responsible for the instructional program. One or more supervisors are employed and are given the responsibility for the program. If all goes well, the supervisors are given the credit; if things do not go well, the supervisors are given the blame. Under such a plan the teachers do what the supervisor wants. If it works well, everyone is happy; if it doesn't work well, at least the teachers did it the way the supervisor wanted it done. Failure of the program rests with the supervisor. Teachers cannot be expected to generate vital concern for the curriculum as long as the curriculum is someone else's responsibility. Who actually carries the responsibility for the instructional program is a *basic* issue in supervision and should be the keynote in terms of which the organization for and procedures in supervision are developed.

Every school system has some controls within the framework of which the school program must move forward. Some of these controls have a legal basis; the law says these things must be done or the law says these other things must not be done. There are also the additional controls re-

sulting from school board policies and community circumstances. Most schools have relatively fixed current operating budgets and expenditures must be kept within the budget. Whatever the controls may be, teachers should know what they are and which ones are operative with reference to a given phase of the school's program whenever there is cooperative teacher participation in a school management or school improvement project. In other words, at the outset of a project, teachers should know the boundary or the "zone of freedom" within which a solution to the problem must be found. There have been altogether too many examples of instances wherein teachers have worked hard with enthusiasm to develop a fine plan for meeting a problem only to find later that the report had been shelved because a principal, a supervisor, or the superintendent didn't approve, or because funds were lacking, or because some control would not permit it. Such "dead end" projects are very destructive of teacher morale and frequently kill teacher interest in further activities of a similar nature. Whenever this kind of thing happens it is clear evidence that teachers do not know the areas or the degree of their responsibilities. A sound psychological setting for their participation has been destroyed because they did not have full and accurate information regarding the controls within which a solution must be sought. Knowing the "zones of freedom" and the extent to which one carries responsibility are essential for effective in-service growth through participation in school improvement projects.

The problems on which teacher participation is sought and the ways in which teachers are asked to participate has much to do with the psychological climate in which supervision operates. Chase, in a study in which 400 teachers in five school systems were interviewed and in which questionnaire returns were received from 1800 teachers in 216 school systems in 43 states, found a high degree of relationship between satisfaction with the school system and participation by teachers in making policies for grouping, promotion, and control of pupils. In school systems in which there was no participation by teachers only 30 per cent of the teachers were enthusiastic about the school system and about 20 per cent were dissatisfied. In systems in which there was regular and active participation by teachers, 60 per cent were enthusiastic and only 3 per cent were dissatisfied. Similar differences were found for other categories of participation. School systems in which morale is high are distinguished from low morale systems by the greater opportunity for teachers to share in planning.²⁷

²⁷ Francis S. Chase, *Administration and Teacher Morale* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1953).

PROBLEMS RELATED TO THE SYSTEM-WIDE ORGANIZATION FOR SUPERVISION

Every worthy undertaking, if it is to be carried forward efficiently, requires a scheme of operations. Usually one of the first things a leader does is to develop a plan whereby steps may be taken toward an objective. If leadership operates in terms of democratic principles, such plans are developed in cooperation with the other persons involved. The result is an organization through which and within which persons operate in discharging their various responsibilities and contributions to the enterprise. With reference to professional leadership for education, the term "organization for supervision" has been used to designate the over-all structure for the improvement of educational service.

The various influences which have been important factors in the development of supervision²⁸ have not operated in the same manner in all communities. In many cases, and perhaps in most instances, the organization for supervision has "grown" rather than developed according to sound principles and experimentally determined procedures. Each school system has built up a plan which was deemed appropriate and feasible in the light of the training, experience, and personalities of the teachers and the various supervisory officers who constituted the educational staff. As progress has been made in the science of teaching, administration, and supervision, and in the training of teachers and administrative officers, serious problems involving duplication of effort, conflict of authority, unbalanced emphasis upon subjects offered, and differences in both supervisory and general educational philosophy have arisen. These latter issues have been discussed extensively in other sources. Diagrams picturing the organization for professional leadership and the interrelationship of supervisory officers which are peculiar to a local school have been presented by students of administration and supervision, and are familiar to most leaders in education.²⁹

During the late 1920's and early 1930's there was much interest in the organization for administration and supervision. There was much discussion in the literature about "line and staff," "coordinate," and "dual" types of organization. Textbooks in school administration and in supervision contained many diagrams illustrating the different types of organization. A number of studies were undertaken in an effort to gather information about the way in which the different types of organization were operating, to appraise their relative merits and limitations, and to

²⁸ Ayer and Barr, *op. cit.*, Ch. I.

²⁹ Ayer and Barr, *op. cit.*; Fred Engelhardt and E. O. Melby, *The Supervisory Organization and the Instructional Program*, Albert Lea, Minnesota (Minneapolis, University of Minnesota Press, 1928); E. O. Melby, *Organization and Administration of Supervision* (Bloomington, Ill., Public School Publishing Co., 1928).

seek ways of improving the machinery for administration and supervision. As a result of these studies and the experience in school systems everywhere, much insight was emerging about ways in which a school system might determine the number and types of supervisors needed and ways in which a supervisory staff might organize and work to best advantage. Then came the big economic depression of the early 1930's with major slashes in school budgets and the reduction or complete elimination of supervisors in many school systems. Whether the economic depression was the cause is mere conjecture, but after the depression there never developed a revived interest in serious study of the organization for supervision. There have been very few researches dealing with organization for supervision published within the past 20 years. Of the few studies that have been published, none has come to grips with the fundamental issues of organization for supervision under present-day theories. Perhaps it is fair to say that the past 20 years have been characterized by experimentation relating to the implementation of newer concepts in both administration and supervision while adhering primarily to patterns of supervisory organization created under an older philosophy of supervision. Supervision has been in the kind of predicament faced by the brewer who tried to ferment a new kind of wine in outmoded kettles. The result is that there is much new ferment bouncing around in an old organization which is being recognized as inadequate to the new tasks of supervision. Few individuals see a pattern of organization clearly enough to come forth boldly with creations appropriately structured to the new concepts in administration and supervision.³⁰

Although recent years have produced little research focused upon the organization for supervision, supervisory organizations in local school systems have not remained entirely static. Data gathered by the Educational Research Service in 1939-1940 from 262 cities with populations of 2500 and over showed much lack of uniformity in supervisory organizations and an increase in the number of positions classified as directors of division or directors of instruction.³¹ Two-thirds of these school systems had directors of instruction in 1940. During a two-year period (1947-1949) a team of staff members from the U. S. Office of Education visited 100 school systems in 43 states in order to study the organization and supervision of elementary education. This team also found much diversity in the ways in which school systems had organized themselves for supervising elementary schools. In 30 cities of 10,000 to 30,000 population the superintendent took full responsibility without any assistance; three cities

³⁰ Some new proposals may be found in: Pittenger, *op. cit.*, Ch. 4; Moehlman, *op. cit.*, Ch. 12; Koopman, Miel, and Misner, *op. cit.*, Ch. 4

³¹ American Association of School Administrators and Research Division of the N.E.A., *Personnel Responsible for Supervision of Instruction*, Educational Research Service Circular, No. 11 (December, 1940).

had an assistant superintendent; two had a director of elementary education; six placed full responsibility upon the elementary-school principals. Even greater diversity of practice was found in the 39 cities with 30,000 to 100,000 population; in all cases the superintendent had one or more assistants, but their titles and places in the organization varied a great deal. The most frequently named person responsible for the general supervision of elementary education in this group of cities was the general elementary supervisor or director. In the third group of cities (those over 100,000 population) 15 out of 51 had an assistant superintendent in charge of elementary education. Other titles which appeared frequently were "deputy superintendent," "associate superintendent," "coordinator of instruction," "coordinator of elementary education," and "director of elementary education."³² The variations in the organization for supervision in these 100 cities were so pronounced that the only generalization which the visiting team could draw was that someone, regardless of title bestowed, was responsible for education at the elementary-school level.

Identifying the title and the role of the individual who has general responsibility for elementary education in a school system does not complete the picture. Special supervisors of art were found in 27 of the 31 Class I cities, in 30 of 39 Class II cities, and in 17 of 30 Class III cities (those with 10,000 to 30,000 population). Special supervisors of music were found in 29 of 31 Class I cities, in 37 of 39 Class II cities, and in 25 of 30 Class III cities. Health and physical-education supervisors were employed in all 31 Class I cities, in 29 of 39 Class II cities, and in 22 of 30 Class III cities. Some cities also had supervisors or directors of special education, audio-visual education, pupil personnel services, lunch and cafeteria services, library services, health services, and research and testing services, who had major duties in elementary schools.

The array of system-wide workers which it has been deemed desirable to add to school staffs creates many problems of allocation and division of responsibility, coordination of services, and staff relationships, especially at the point at which the service of each system-wide worker touches the principal and teachers in a given school. Invariably the expansion of the central office staff multiplies the work for the individual principal in that additional reports are required. Sometimes the increase in service to a school is not commensurate with the increased demands made upon the school, especially in the form of clerical work and reports.

Several trends are evident in the changes which have been taking place during the past 15 or more years. There has been a definite increase in the number and variety of system-wide workers who serve in various combinations of administrative and supervisory capacities. There appears

³² Effie G. Bathurst and others, *Organization and Supervision of Elementary Education in 100 Cities*, Bulletin No. 11 (Washington, Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, 1949).

to be a noticeable increase in 12-grade directors of curriculum. No doubt this trend is resulting from increasing recognition of the need for better 12-grade articulation in all aspects of the program. A third trend is the tendency to place an increasing proportion of the system-wide workers on the basis of consultants. In the latter capacity they are not given responsibility in the usual line relationship between the individual school and the superintendent's office; instead they are considered as full-time special resource persons available on call whenever and wherever there are problems to which they might have a special contribution to make. Another trend that is clearly discernible in practice as well as in the professional literature is the increasing amount of responsibility delegated to the principal for instructional supervision in his own building.

In view of the picture of organization for supervision as we find it today, several important issues confront us. If modern concepts in supervision are to be given full expression, who, in addition to the superintendent of schools, is to have the basic responsibility for the character and quality of the instructional program? Is it to be the director of curriculum, the director of elementary education, or the special supervisors, each in his own specialty, the elementary-school principal, the teachers in each building, or the principal and teachers together? The way in which this question is answered will determine in large measure whether it is possible to have a dynamic or a desultory in-service education program. The answer will also decide to a great extent *how* system-wide personnel is expected to function. By way of illustration, let us assume that in each school the principal *and* teachers together are held fully responsible for the complete program in that school. Allocating responsibility in this fashion causes the faculty in each school to have realistic problems as *its* foci for staff meetings, for in-service education, and for other activities which make for a psychologically sound environment for professional growth. Supervision at its best could happen most easily in such a setting. All system-wide personnel would function on a consultative basis; each would do the best he could within the resources and general circumstances present in the school system and its community. Each teacher would have her goal of increasing professional competence as "the master to be served" and would not be harassed by trying to meet the wishes of three to five or more general and special supervisors, as is frequently the case in some school systems. The *responsibility* for supervision would rest with the principal, but in reality it would be shared by him and his teachers.

The preceding description is hypothetical and perhaps idealistic but it does help to pinpoint the importance of the issue raised by the question: "Who *is* responsible for the character and quality of the instructional program?" It seems clear that as long as someone other than the teachers is held responsible for the instructional program it will be difficult to put modern concepts in supervision into full operation. Somehow ways must

be found to make teachers really accept broader responsibility for the school's total program. As such a goal is more nearly achieved, the elementary-school principal will find himself in a new leadership role. Are elementary-school principals qualified to assume this new role? If not, then one must raise the question: "To what extent is the lack of leadership capacity in elementary-school principals the chief obstacle to a fundamental redesigning of the organization for supervision?"

If the faculty of each school is to have full responsibility for the total program in that school, several other important issues must be resolved. How much freedom and autonomy in curriculum-making is to be accorded the individual school? Shall each school be free to adapt its curriculum to the peculiar needs of the children being served? Who shall develop the broad frame of reference for the curriculum so that there may be a general plan in terms of which adaptations may be made by the individual school? To what extent must secretarial and clerical help be increased in each elementary school? To what extent must system-wide requirements and controls be re-examined and reduced if necessary? No research is available to show the number and types of system-wide controls under which elementary schools operate in school systems of different size. The impression is that the larger the school system the larger the number of system-wide controls, but there is no evidence to support this thought. If leaders in supervision desire a fertile field in which to motivate genuine participation by all members of the school faculty, they must see to it that faculty members have genuine reasons for self-assertion. Such desire for high-level professional activity by teachers and principals does not germinate in the arid soil of extensive system-wide controls. Some of the areas in which system-wide controls need re-examination are: unwavering adherence to recommended units, unchangeable sequence of units, time allotments for units, number of units to be covered, expecting all classes to show identical or similar minimum achievements, publicizing grade or class medians on standardized tests, grade placement of texts, grouping practices, promotion standards, methods of reporting to parents, and equipment and supplies.

Increased autonomy for the individual school raises new questions about system-wide coordination. No doubt each school system should have certain earmarks of coordination. Perhaps the desired amount of coordination can be secured in areas not now thought of as important coordinating features, such as the philosophy and general purposes of the program, policies on meeting the needs of individual pupils, provision of instructional resources, the basic orientation of the curriculum, and the fundamentals of parent-school relations. System-wide coordination along these lines would be quite different from the usual administrative routines which now constitute most of the system-wide controls. Obviously some of the latter, such as age of entrance and form of reports, will have to be

maintained but the basic framework for system-wide coordination might be lifted to more profound educational issues.

New and more effective channels will also have to be found for achieving maximum system-wide usage of consultants, for attacking problems common to various buildings and the system proper with helpful exchanges among groups working on similar problems, and for considering on a system-wide basis issues confronting all schools. The essential point is that augmenting the role of the individual school does not eliminate the need for some inter-building and some system-wide activities. New and better ways of achieving system-wide coordination must be sought under modern concepts of supervision. Improved methods of working together must pay special attention to the procedures used by faculties in individual schools as well as by more broadly constituted groups.

If general and special supervisors are to function on a consultative basis and maintain a genuine "helper" relationship with principals and teachers, some changes will probably have to be made in the demands which top-level administrators make upon them. Can we continue to ask supervisors to make periodic reports on the scope and quality of instruction and pupil achievement in each one's special area of interest or must we find ways whereby the faculty of each school can make periodic inventories and appraisals of the school's program and make its report to the proper authorities? Can supervisors continue to participate in teacher rating and in recommending upon the re-employment or dismissal of teachers? If one assumes that the superintendent and board of education are under obligation to know the quality of service rendered by each employee of the school system, someone or some group must make periodic reports upon members of the staff. If supervisors are not to engage in this activity, shall the appraisal of the personnel in each building be left entirely in the hands of the principal, a faculty committee, or can even better procedures be evolved?³³

Time and funds for in-service education constitute another issue in the organization for supervision.

Caswell and his associates expressed the conviction that the individual school should be the operational and planning unit for curriculum development, but they also recognized the system-wide problems and postulated six guiding principles which identified the role of the central-office staff in a situation in which maximum responsibility and freedom were given the individual school. These six guiding principles may be paraphrased as follows: (a) provide leadership in a continuing analysis of curriculum problems and in formulating comprehensive plans for meeting them; (b) foster a sense of group purpose among all instructional workers; (c) co-

³³ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Better Than Rating* (Washington, N.E.A., 1951).

ordinate the activities of all instructional workers so that a unified curriculum is developed; (d) provide resource specialists; (e) create leadership among the entire teaching force; and (f) arrange working relationships with personnel responsible for other phases of school operation so that all forces may cooperate in the development of a good curriculum.³⁴

TIME AND FUNDS FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

An increasing number of school systems are giving fuller recognition to the belief that the professional staff should accept responsibility for giving the community leadership in improving school programs by establishing administrative provisions whereby time, funds, and other resources make effective school improvement activities possible. The specific arrangements vary widely from one school system to another. Glencoe, Illinois, was one of the first public school systems to employ its teachers on a 12-month basis; this arrangement permitted teachers and principals, individually and in groups, to engage in a variety of summer projects selected cooperatively but carefully designed to expand and improve the school's services to the community. Austin, Texas, in 1948, placed all of its teachers on a 10-month employment basis. One week of the tenth month is devoted to pre-session conferences and planning in late August and early September; from two to four full days are allocated to cooperative in-service activities during the school year; and the remainder of the month is used in June for a curriculum workshop, teaching activities with children, summer-school attendance, approved travel, and related educational projects.

Other school systems throughout the country use a variety of other means for providing time for in-service activities. In 1950-1951 the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development published an account of provisions for curriculum development in 94 school systems of all sizes in all sections of the United States.³⁵ The major findings of this survey were: (a) 25 systems reported having a workshop or conference immediately preceding the opening of the school year; (b) 17 had some kind of conference or workshop following the close of the regular school year; (c) 21 released teachers at regular intervals for all or parts of a school day for curriculum work; (d) 19 released teachers for a semester or more to work on curriculum materials; (e) 34 engaged some teachers

³⁴ Hollis L. Caswell and associates, *Curriculum Improvement in Public School Systems* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950), Ch. 4.

³⁵ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Time and Funds for Curriculum Development* (Washington, N.E.A., 1951).

on regular salary during the summer months for curriculum work; (f) 42 released teachers to serve on textbook selection committees; (g) 75 had plans for releasing teachers to observe local demonstrations; (h) 82 employed outside specialists for consultative services; (i) 23 used outside help to construct materials for classroom use; and (j) 34 reported a plan whereby they lightened the load of teachers who gave special time to curriculum revision activities.

The preceding resume of devices used for providing time for curriculum development activities identifies many points at which school budgets are involved in making the arrangements possible. Employing teachers for an additional month or more, hiring substitutes while regular teachers are released from classroom duties, engaging outside consultants, providing secretarial help for those working on the preparation of curriculum materials, publishing curriculum bulletins, purchasing professional books, and providing a curriculum library represent some of the cost items. Some persons, especially laymen, may ask whether these expenditures are legitimate public school budget items. The writer's judgment is that they are not only legitimate expenditures but that they are a "must" if a community wants and is to have good school programs. The role of education in today's society is such that only outstanding school programs will do. If school faculties are to have time for giving leadership in keeping school programs abreast of the current trends, time and funds must be made available. Teachers and citizens should recognize that education in the United States has graduated beyond the stage in which we try to squeeze blood out of a turnip; genuine professional leadership requires a *professional plan*.

Time and funds alone do not make for an effective in-service education program. There must be good planning and good plans, long-term as well as short-term plans. Time schedules must be developed so that the participants have a plan of operation which is feasible in terms of work load and other duties. Some school systems make the error of crowding too many projects into too short a period of time so that fatigue and loss of interest occur. Attention must also be given to suitable meeting places and work areas. Asking teachers to work for an hour or two in chairs suited to primary grade children is not conducive to high level productivity. Adequate professional library resources should be so conveniently at hand (preferably in each school) that the consideration of every problem may be accompanied by a thorough review of research and professional literature. Without convenient recourse to professional literature, group deliberations are apt to be little more than "ignorant exchange of ignorant opinion."

ORGANIZATION FOR STAFF PARTICIPATION WITHIN THE INDIVIDUAL SCHOOL

At various points in the preceding discussion, attention was called to the strategic role of the individual school within the system-wide organization and procedures in supervision. Numerous aspects of modern educational theory, as well as certain basic concepts in supervision, imply that the individual school should be the operational and planning unit in curriculum development and other school improvement projects. Such a "grass roots" approach does not mean that each school in the system should go its own way without regard for the others. It does mean, however, that problems dealt with on a system-wide basis should arise out of the work done by the individual school staffs and feed back into use through these staffs. The staff of each school thus has a new kind of role not heretofore accorded to individual schools in the older patterns of organization for supervision.

The unique role of the individual school staff in modern supervisory programs places special responsibility upon those who design the organization for staff participation within each school. The old-fashioned faculty meeting at which the principal made announcements and gave directions on administrative routines will no longer suffice. Staff organization and procedures must now conform to the essentials of modern supervision as sketched in the earlier sections of this chapter. Together teachers and principal should evolve the time, place, and frequency of group meetings, the problems to be considered, the allocation of leadership roles, and many other details that must be agreed upon if effective group efforts are to bring satisfying results. In some school systems each Monday (or some other day in the week) is reserved for building faculty meetings, while some other day in the week is reserved for system-wide meetings of various kinds. Teachers are then assured that other days of the week will be free of group meetings. Individual conferences with pupils or parents may thus be scheduled on the other days without danger of conflict. In some systems only one given day in the week is reserved for group meetings, building meetings to be held during the first three weeks in each month and system-wide meetings to be scheduled during the fourth week in the month. Other variations, of course, are possible.

Suitable space and facilities for group meetings and committee work should be given careful consideration. All that has been learned about seating arrangements and other techniques for effective group work should be observed as extensively as possible. Each school should make arrangements whereby up-to-date professional books and journals may be obtained regularly and housed in a place which makes these materials conveniently available to teachers. Schools which have a centralized library might well make the professional collection as integral part of the

library's services. Many a teacher will take home a book or a journal for an evening or a week end if it can be picked up conveniently at the close of the school day.

How to make faculty meetings more effective has been treated at length by Kimball Wiles.³⁶ He posed and answered 18 questions such as "When should faculty meetings be held?" and "What is the role of the chairman?" At the conclusion of his discussion he provides 24 specific suggestions that will prove helpful to any principal. Krug, in his chapter dealing with organizing and developing the curriculum program, presents 10 guideposts for developing and maintaining teacher morale.³⁷ Among his guideposts are such items as "Start the program with an emphasis on real problems of teachers and school life," "Don't dawdle over philosophy or objectives," and "Recognize and provide for the emotional needs involved in group process." Suggestions such as those provided by Wiles and Krug can be very helpful in making the work of a school staff effective.

ATTITUDES AND SKILLS REQUIRED BY SUPERVISORY LEADERS

The changed concepts of supervision are probably at the root of a variety of new problems facing leaders in supervision and curriculum development. Many of the old problems are still with us and must be handled, but the intent here is to focus especially upon certain problems growing out of the newer ideas in supervision. Perhaps the most important problem relates to the attitudes of supervisors toward those with whom they work. Supervisors now look upon themselves as colleagues with principals, teachers, and other supervisors. All are joined together in a cooperative effort to improve school programs for children. This kind of a working relationship makes it imperative that supervisors manifest a genuine faith in the desire *and* capacity of others to grow professionally. There must be a real respect for the professional integrity of others. Supervisors must have faith in and plan for the 98 per cent of teachers who can and will grow in service and who will put their shoulders to the wheel to help improve school programs. Heretofore altogether too many administrators and supervisors have said, "That all sounds very good, *but* we have some teachers who simply could not learn to teach any differently." As a result, very little is undertaken by way of school improvement projects; the whole program is planned in terms of the small percentage of teachers who can't or won't. The great body of worthy and willing teachers are held back because a few block the road. It is time that we lift our vision in terms of the 98 per cent who can, will, and want to move forward.

³⁶ Wiles, *op. cit.*, Ch. 8.

³⁷ Krug, *op. cit.*, Ch. 7.

Supervisors must recognize the "psychological lift" that people get when they are invited "to help work it out" and the resulting personalized feeling of responsibility which they develop for the success of the plans they have helped to devise. We must recognize that *everyone* is responsible for continuous school improvement. Plans must be laid to release the unused talents of teachers. Most teachers have much more skill in teaching than they are now encouraged or permitted to use. A highly directed teacher is also highly circumscribed in her activities. We must realize that everyone has something to give, even those who are conservative or disagree with us for other reasons. We should recognize that those who express viewpoints that differ from ours render us a real service in that they cause us to think through our own ideas much more clearly and thoroughly. Innovations and experimentation should be encouraged and no one should frown upon unsuccessful innovations. We should strive to create an environment in which people feel as free to discuss their unsuccessful endeavors as to brag about the successful ones.

New concepts and procedures in supervision demand a variety of new skills on the part of those who would be supervisors. Wiles has grouped these skills nicely under five categories: skills in leadership, skills in human relations, skills in group process, skills in personnel administration, and skills in evaluation.³⁸ Not all who engage in supervision can acquire all of these skills to a high level of proficiency at once, but all can improve themselves along these lines if conscious effort is made.

THE PRINCIPAL AS ADMINISTRATOR AND PROFESSIONAL LEADER

The principal of an elementary school plays many roles which have numerous overlapping features. Analyses of the activities of elementary-school principals have revealed more than 200 types of duties performed by them. A review of the research in this field shows that the principal's work is extensive indeed, covering such major categories as classroom control and management; general management; supervision; teacher and pupil personnel; supervision of janitorial service; clerical duties associated with supplies, repairs, reports, and records; and frequently some teaching. In this multitude of duties administrative and supervisory activities are frequently intermixed, and when they are intermixed it is difficult to differentiate the administrative from the supervisory. In both administrative and supervisory activities are found an infinite number of situations in which the principal has an opportunity to demonstrate his leadership abilities. It is assumed that in all these situations the principal will utilize the democratic techniques embodied in modern concepts of administration and supervision.

³⁸ Wiles, *op. cit.*

The principal's role as administrator, as supervisor, and as professional leader may be viewed from two angles. One of these is from the position which the principal holds as a line-officer in the administration of the schools. Even when policies and procedures are developed democratically with the members of the faculty, there must be an allocation of responsibility if the plans are to be carried out effectively. Democracy in school administration does not imply the elimination of allocation of responsibility and authority. There will be many specific functions which will be assigned to the principal. There are also in every school those hundreds of details which must be looked after by someone if the school is to operate smoothly. As a line-officer in the administration of the schools the elementary principal has a definite relationship to the superintendent of schools and his assistants. The principal of a school and the superintendent of a system of schools hold somewhat complementary positions. The superintendent is responsible for the successful conduct of the whole system of schools, while the principal is primarily responsible for the successful conduct of a single school or a group of related schools. Both the superintendent and the principal will work through and with the assistance of such other staff members as are available.

Another angle from which to view the role of the principal is the field of school improvement. In the past the field of school improvement has been characterized by the term *supervision*, but it is now commonly recognized that supervision in the broad sense touches upon many administrative matters, and that both administration and supervision are concerned with the continuous improvement of the educational services.

The principal's role in the field of supervision or school improvement is a relatively new one. Historically few supervisory duties were assigned to the elementary principal, since his job was conceived as administrative and clerical in character. In recent years, however, the proper place and functions of the elementary principal have been studied more carefully, and as a result his administrative and especially his supervisory duties have been increased and more clearly defined. The chief change in the functions of the elementary principal has come in the field of supervision. It is now commonly agreed in theory and accepted extensively in practice that all types of supervisory service should be coordinated through the office of the school principal.

The principal thus holds a key position in the supervisory field. He is the one who must see to it that "good administration precedes good supervision" and that "good supervisory practices should follow upon sound administration." His professional leadership capacities are tested every day. The success of the supervisory program depends largely upon the skill of the principal in identifying the problems in his own school, in enlisting the enthusiastic participation of the teachers, pupils, and patrons of his school in a cooperative attack upon those problems, and in co-

ordinating such in-system and out-of-system resources as can be obtained.

Among the in-system resources will be the general and special supervisors, consultants, and research personnel employed by the local school system. One important thing for the principal to know is the talents of each of these resource persons and how to enlist their contributions in the most effective manner. Usually general supervisors bring to their work a broad background of professional training and experience which makes it possible for them to give expert assistance in the interpretation of courses of study and the objectives and materials of instruction. The fact that they have occasion to visit extensively in the schools of the city enables them to view classroom instruction, teacher difficulties, and pupil progress and achievement from a broader point of view than the principal may be able to do. The principal thus has occasion to discuss the problems in his own school with one who can view the work in a particular school in terms of the district as a whole. Frequently the supervisor may recognize and call to the attention of the principal certain problems which had escaped him. If the principal and the general supervisor can engage frequently in friendly, frank discussion of professional problems, the principal, or perhaps both of them, may learn much of value. Certainly the principal should utilize every opportunity to secure information and assistance from the general supervisor regarding the problems in his own building.

Much of what has been said regarding the cooperative relationships between the principal and general supervisors will apply also for supervisors of special subjects, such as art, music, penmanship, and physical education. Because the latter types of supervisors are each concerned with a narrow phase of the curriculum, the character of their work and their contacts with teachers and principals are likely to be quite different from those of general supervisors. Special supervisors are more likely to overemphasize the subject of their particular interest and to make requests of teachers and pupils which are quite out of proportion to the importance of the subject in the curriculum. The very fact that they have been brought in as specialists in particular subjects gives them certain prerogatives which may lead to embarrassing situations unless staff relationships and supervisory responsibilities are clearly defined. As with general supervisors, special supervisors may render great service and be of much help to the principal. The principal should plan definitely how to use all types of supervisors to the best advantage. This planning is a cooperative undertaking between the principal, the teachers, and the supervisor, with such cooperation to be based on the needs of the school as determined by all concerned.

The extent to which supervisory officers of various kinds work within buildings independent of the principal or under the direction and authority of the principal varies considerably from one school system to another.

It is generally conceded, however, that the most desirable situation results if supervisors come under the professional supervision of the principal and work through the principal while they are in his building. Special teachers too, while working in a particular building, should be regarded as the regular teachers are and should be subject to the same regulations and supervision as are the other teachers. In the organization and administration of a school the principal should be in control, and changes in organization should not be made by supervisors without the consent of the principal, and would best be made by his specific request.

In order that the principal may discharge effectively his supervisory responsibilities, it is essential that he have a thorough background for supervision. Part of this background may be obtained through professional courses, reading, conferences, and so on, while a part of it must be obtained on the job. The particular setting into which the supervisory work of the principal must fit is determined by the conditions in the local school. Supervisory activities will be selected and shaped in terms of the needs in the school. Progressive theory holds that a major responsibility of the principal is to adjust the school to the local community. The principal will thus desire to familiarize himself with the factors in the community, both positive and negative, which may influence the work of the school and the out-of-school life of the child. A large variety of community organizations and institutions are frequently present and may be enlisted to cooperate with the school in constructive ways.

In the process of studying his own school and in projecting and carrying out a supervisory program the principal will use a variety of supervisory techniques and activities, such as classroom visitation, individual and group conferences, demonstration teaching, reports from teachers, teachers' meetings, measuring pupil abilities and achievements, making age-grade and progress studies, directing or making case studies, and so on. Many of the things the principal will do may be classified as fact-finding activities which bear only indirectly upon supervision. Many of the procedures may be in themselves administrative, clerical, or of a research character. But the interpretation and use of the facts discovered may result in the highest type of supervision.

As the principal proceeds with his supervisory work it is essential that he be critical at all times of his own activities. A supervisor who is not growing professionally and is not striving constantly to raise the quality of his professional services can hardly be expected to exert leadership and to stimulate growth on the part of those supervised. The professional literature on supervision is replete with stimulating suggestions and ideas regarding supervisory techniques and ways of evaluating one's supervisory activities. Principals should be students of supervision and should be conversant with the literature in this field. As supervisory programs are planned by the superintendent and his staff, the principal will then be

prepared to map out the course of action which he proposes to follow to help in the application of the educational policies. Frequently such supervisory plans of the principal are submitted to the superintendent for suggestion and approval. At the conclusion of the project the results are checked, the activities evaluated, and the reports sent to the central offices. Principals who are alive to their job will not postpone supervisory work until a project is suggested from the superintendent's office or carry on the intermittent type of supervision which is called into action only when the central administrative staff has a program to be carried through. The professional elementary principal will constantly study the needs of his school, teachers, and pupils, and will initiate his own supervisory programs and plans to improve the educational services in his building.

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9

Pupil Personnel Services

THE DEVELOPMENT of pupil personnel services of the public schools constitutes an interesting chapter in the history of education in the United States. The basic importance of universal public education in a democracy was recognized early in the colonial period and was given prominent consideration as the constitutions of the various states were prepared. In those days, however, little thought was given to the many problems which would confront the schools if "all the children of all the people" were actually to attend school; and the conditions of the times were such as to make it difficult to foresee very many of the changes which have come about since then. The history of compulsory attendance service, psychological service, special classes, special schools for truant and behavior cases, free textbooks, food and clothing for the indigent, and health service gives interesting insights into the changes in American culture and the changes in educational thought and practice.

Although the growth of the service activities of the public school systems has not been a gradual process, certain factors throughout the past 70 years have exerted influences which have led the schools to the establishment of separate departments and agencies for the treatment of different aspects of child growth and welfare and for the more effective administration of certain phases of school work. The rise of industrialism and the subsequent legislation regarding child-labor and compulsory school attendance brought to the public schools a wide variety of ability and behavior personalities and many types of children who, as was soon demonstrated, could not receive the maximum benefits from the existing schools.

Current trends in public education and modern conceptions of teaching were placing increased responsibilities upon the teacher as a director of learning. Developments in methods of teaching and research in educational and clinical psychology and student health provided the teacher with many new and very useful instruments and techniques for the improvement of her work, but they have, at the same time, placed upon her the inescapable responsibility of utilizing these newer devices and sources of information to improve the effectiveness of her labors.

Coincident with the above developments came a more complex eco-

conomic and social life. The adjustment to this more intricate environment placed further burdens upon the educative agencies and in many cases extended the services of the schools. The growing feeling of democratic education insisted that the children deviating from the normal be adequately cared for with the result that special groups, classes, and units were set up quite separate and apart from the regular educational activities. To assist the teacher in the application of scientific principles and techniques and to facilitate the effective administration of the entire program for public education, certain service agencies have been established.

The most recent influence giving greater significance to pupil personnel services has grown out of the research in child development. Much importance has been attached to knowing the "whole child" and to the fact that the child's behavior and progress in school are conditioned by his background as well as his daily out-of-school experiences in home and community. The interrelatedness and continuity of the growth processes have been well established. Consequently there is much interest in securing, recording, and interpreting data concerning the all-round development of the child over a long period of time, thus calling for new emphasis upon case studies, clinical approaches, and observational and anecdotal records. The child's physical well-being is seen in new light in relation to his mental development.

The trends which have been enumerated bring added significance and new viewpoints to the pupil personnel services, particularly as they find application in the elementary school. Teachers and principals in elementary schools should have broad understanding of the unique relationship which these service activities have to the educational effort of the school, the contributions which the personnel and adjustment services can make to the educational program, and the channels and techniques whereby the service activities may be utilized to best advantage. According to Davis, pupil personnel services are concerned with the individualization of education, not in the sense that classroom instruction will be abandoned in favor of teaching one individual at a time, but a pupil personnel program does represent an effort to see to it that each separate pupil, in class and out, receives intelligent attention as an individual.¹

THE SCHOOL CENSUS

An adequate, continuous school census is the pillar upon which the school builds a program which has the fullest guarantee that every child will receive a good education as his birthright. No school system can rest assured that it is meeting its obligation to every child unless there is an accurate and up-to-date inventory of *all* the children who should be re-

¹ Frank G. Davis, ed., *Pupil Personnel Service* (Scranton, Pa., The International Textbook Co., 1948), p. 1.

ceiving the benefits of schooling. In 1945 all but six states (Arizona, California, Delaware, Indiana, Nevada, and New Jersey) required a school census. Four states required a continuous census; 1 had a continuous census in cities only; 27 had an annual census; 6 had a biennial census; 1 every 4 years; and 3 every 5 years. Six states required the census to include all children from birth to age 18, 20, or 21; 5 states began the census at 4 years of age; 9 states at 5 years of age; 2 states at 7 years of age; and 20 at 6 years of age.² Although the law in most states does not require the census to be continuous or to include children under specified ages, many school systems within these states have recognized the benefits of a continuous census including all children from birth to age 18 or over, and have organized their census procedures to include these features.

A school census that is kept up-to-date day by day serves the superintendent's office in numerous ways, including the planning of school budgets and building programs. But an adequate census can serve the individual school in equally significant ways. The principal of each school can be informed regularly when new families move into his attendance area. He can thus be on the lookout for new entrees if they have not already enrolled. If the expected new entrees do not enroll within a few days some contact can be made with the home. In some places the P.T.A. has a member of the "Welcoming Committee" in each city block. This person watches for new families moving in, calls upon the family within a day or two after the new family has arrived, welcomes them to the neighborhood, tells them about the school, and offers to take the parents to the next P.T.A. meeting. As soon as the newcomers have enrolled in school, the principal clears with the census and attendance office. Methods such as these frequently forestall the time children lose in school attendance when families move from one place to another. A large proportion of the "days of schooling" lost each year arise from parental carelessness in getting their children back into school promptly after moving to a new home.

Adequate census records can be very helpful to a principal at the beginning of the school year. As soon as possible after the opening of the school year, initial enrollments should be checked against the census to make sure that all children who should be in school have actually enrolled. Unless this kind of a check can be made the school staff cannot be certain that all pupils who should be in school are actually there. Much schooling is lost by many children because those who are indifferent about attending school are not discovered early in the term. If it is found that certain pupils have failed to enroll, the assistance of the attendance department or officer or the visiting teacher may be solicited at once. Census and membership records thus form the basis for attendance and visiting teacher services.

In these years of rapidly changing school populations good census

² M. M. Proffitt and David Segel, *School Census, Compulsory Attendance, Child Labor*, U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin No. 1 (1945).

records can help a principal to anticipate enrollments by grades for the next year. Knowing how many class sections at each grade level will be required next year is an annual problem with most principals. Teacher selection and teacher transfers are dependent upon such information. Adequate census data are therefore very useful in planning the school's organization for the ensuing year.

Many principals have an active role in census taking. If the census is kept on a continuing basis the principal may be responsible for the day by day routines within his attendance area. In the 37 states in which an annual or other periodic enumeration must be made, the actual canvass of the individual homes may be made by the teachers under the supervision of the principal or the principal may be responsible for organizing and supervising the enumeration in his district by laymen employed temporarily for that purpose. Several writers recommend the plan whereby teachers make the house to house canvass. The argument is that it gives teachers an opportunity to visit all the homes, especially those of their own pupils. The claim is also made that teacher enumerators can use the occasion for valuable public relations. There is some doubt as to whether these values can be realized. Schools which recognize the value of teacher visits to the homes usually have a plan for home visitation in vogue which is more comprehensive than the brief contact made possible at the time of census taking. If teacher time and travel is to be conserved in census enumeration, each teacher must be allocated a specific geographical area. At each home visited all children of the required ages must be enumerated. It is only by chance that a given teacher would call at the homes of a few of her own pupils. High-school teachers would be visiting homes in which there are pre-school, elementary-school, and high-school pupils. A similar situation would prevail for elementary-school teachers who participated. If the enumeration is made only by elementary-school teachers, no high-school teachers would be visiting any homes of their own pupils. But regardless of the plan which is used, the elementary-school principal is likely to have an important role in census taking in many communities.

ATTENDANCE SERVICE

Compulsory education is not synonymous with compulsory school attendance. In England the idea of compulsory education has been traced back to the year 1405.³ Martin Luther proposed the idea as early as 1524 and Calvin, in founding the ecclesiastical state of Geneva in 1542, made education universal and obligatory to the extent that he was able to realize his plans.⁴ The Massachusetts law of 1642 stated that "selectmen in every

³ F. C. Ensign, *Compulsory School Attendance and Child Labor* (Iowa City, Iowa, Athens Press, 1921), p. 10.

⁴ J. W. Perrin, "Beginnings in Compulsory Education," *Educational Review*, Vol. 25 (1903), pp. 240-248.

town shall have the power to take account of all parents and masters as to their children's education"; the law made children's education compulsory but did not require school attendance. The 1647 law authorized selectmen in every town in Massachusetts having 100 or more families to establish a school, but compulsory attendance at such schools was not included in the law. The two laws together simply stated that children must be educated, that parents were responsible for educating their children, and that the selectmen in towns of certain size were authorized to establish schools to which parents could send their children if they had no other ways of educating them or preferred to send them to school in lieu of private arrangements. It was not until 1852 that the Massachusetts state legislature passed a compulsory school attendance law, the first of its kind to be passed in any state.

It was not until after the Civil War that modern compulsory school attendance laws appeared in the various states (see Table 5 in Chapter 2 for exact dates). It is of interest to note that in 16 states these laws were not placed upon the statutes until after the opening of the present century and that in one state this step was delayed until 1918. At present the lower age limits for compulsory attendance range from age 6 to age 8, while the upper limits range from age 16 to age 18 (details by states are shown in Table 6 in Chapter 2). Exceptions from school attendance for illness and mental or physical disability are similar for most of the states. Exemptions for gainful employment vary noticeably among the states. Twenty-one states require completion of the elementary-school course (usually eight grades); 1 state requires completion of the ninth grade; 1 state completion of the tenth grade; 1 the completion of the first two years of the junior or senior high school; 15 states require the completion of the high school; while 9 states appear to have no express provisions for exemption based upon the amount of schooling completed.

It has been generally recognized that compulsory attendance is an essential corollary to free public education and that the state is responsible for making sure that all its children, for their own sake, receive education. A democratic state is also duty bound to demand for its own protection and preservation that all its children receive the essential elements of a good education. From the viewpoint of the individual, education is so essential to independent citizenship that one would expect to find all parents eager to utilize every educational opportunity for their children. Although this is true in the majority of cases and most parents desire their children to attend regularly, there are some who manifest an uninterested attitude.

THE NATURE AND SCOPE OF THE NONATTENDANCE PROBLEM

The problem of school attendance divides itself into two parts, namely, that of enrolling all of the children of school age and that of keeping those enrolled in regular attendance. The first of these two phases of school attendance has been fairly well met for children of elementary-school age through the operation of compulsory attendance laws and the development of public sentiment, but there are still enough children not in school so that there exists a very real problem which merits constant vigilance and improved methods. Statistics for October, 1947, indicate a total of 3,336,000 children 5 to 17 years of age not in school. Of this total 1,289,000 were of kindergarten age, 322,000 of elementary-school age (Grades 1 to 8, inclusive), and 1,758,000 of high-school age. The number not in school who were of 9th and 10th grade age was only slightly more than the number who were of elementary-school age.⁵ Percentagewise these figures show that only 53.4 per cent of 5-year-olds, 96.2 per cent of 6-year-olds, 98.4 per cent of 7- to 9-year-olds, and 98.6 per cent of 10- to 13-year olds were enrolled in public and nonpublic schools. Although the percentages not enrolled may seem small for certain age groups, the number of children actually involved is much larger than it should be.

Some school-age children are not in school because their parents have obtained legal exemption. The laws in all but two states (Georgia and South Carolina) recognize physical and mental inability as just cause for exemption. Some families take advantage of permissible work permits after the minimum number of grades have been completed; others take advantage of the poverty clause in school attendance laws by claiming that the child's services are needed to support the family; and still others take advantage of the "distance clause" by claiming that undue hardship results because the nearest school is too far away. No data are available to show to what extent each of the legal types of exemptions is operative in accounting for children not enrolled in any school during a given year. Hence one does not know what proportion of those not in school hold legal exemptions and what proportion are illegally absent. It is likely that the illegally absent group is still quite large.

Part of the group not enrolled in any school consists of pupils who at one time attended school but have now discontinued their formal schooling. These are commonly known as "drop-outs." Many in this category are probably included among those who have secured legal exemptions, but there are also many of them who are illegally absent. Lambert's report of a three-year study of the holding power of the schools made by the

⁵ David T. Blose and Emery M. Foster, "Statistics of State School Systems," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1946-48* (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1950), Ch. 2, p. 12.

West Virginia Education Association may have its counterparts in other states. On a statewide basis the West Virginia group found that out of every 100 pupils in the lower elementary grades 20 quit before they reached the eighth grade and 33 had dropped out before they reached the ninth grade. Finally, when high-school graduation day arrived, only 35 of the original 100 were still on hand to receive their diplomas. The range of holding power was from 65 per cent finishing high school in one of the states' highly industrialized counties down to 19 per cent in two rural agricultural counties. In only 3 of West Virginia's 55 counties were as many as 55 per cent finishing high school. Health seemed to be a critical factor in the school drop-out problem; in some counties 15 per cent of those who quit school had to leave because of personal health or prolonged illness or death of a member of the family. Individual case studies on over 1000 pupils who had quit in one county over a two-year period revealed that a surprisingly small percentage were mentally unable to cope with school work. Two counties reported that fully 50 per cent of the drop-outs had little or no interest in school work. Another large county reported that only 9 per cent of those who quit were judged by teachers as "discipline cases." Seventy per cent of the families of drop-outs in one county enjoyed a financial status that was completely satisfactory; only 5 per cent were on relief. Parental attitude was found to be the dominant factor in many cases. Data from one county revealed that for 21 per cent of the drop-outs the parents had wanted them to remain in school; for 9 per cent the parents had urged the children to quit; and for 26 per cent the parents did not care, one way or the other. Marriage appeared to be an important factor in many cases. The records of 2000 drop-outs in two large counties showed that 10 per cent had quit school for this reason. Although the state law requires attendance until the 16th birthday, some pupils merely mark time in school until they reach the age at which attendance is no longer required, while others defy the law and leave at younger ages. In one county 53 per cent of all drop-outs left when they reached age 16 while 23 per cent quit before that age. School systems organized on the 8-4 plan appear to have an especially heavy drop-out rate at the end of the 8th grade. Lambert very aptly concluded his article by pointing out that the drop-outs outnumbered the graduates, and that the drop-outs will be in the majority as future citizens shaping educational policies in the communities in which they live.⁶

The drop-out problem is not confined to one state. Lambert stated that 14 states had lower holding-power rates than West Virginia; even in the state with the best record 27 per cent of those who entered the primary grades failed to finish high school. For the United States as a whole only 481 graduated from high school in 1948 for every 1000 pupils in the fifth

⁶ Sam M. Lambert, "Increasing Education's Holding Power," *Journal of the National Education Association*, Vol. 39 (December, 1950), pp. 664-666.

grade in 1940-1941.⁷ Dillon's report of a study initiated by the National Child Labor Committee throws further light upon the extent and character of the problems connected with early school leavers. In this study intensive case studies were made of 1360 students who discontinued their schooling before completing high school in Jackson County and in the cities of Lansing, Michigan; Cleveland and Cincinnati, Ohio; and Indianapolis, Indiana. The 1360 cases studied represented a 10 per cent sampling of all drop-outs in these communities during the school year 1945-1946, except in Lansing, Michigan, in which the 1944-1945 group was also included. It was found that 54 per cent of the drop-outs were male and 46 per cent female. Three per cent quit while in the seventh grade, 10 per cent in the eighth grade, and the remainder in grades 9 and over. One per cent of the pupils was only 14 years of age; 9 per cent were 15 years old; 54 per cent had reached age 16, while the rest (36 per cent) were 17 and older. Over four-fifths of the school leavers whose place of birth appeared on the school records were native to the state in which they obtained their schooling; 91 per cent attended the elementary school in the system from which they later withdrew; and 79 per cent had entered that school system in the first grade. The drop-outs had had frequent transfers from one school to another, two-thirds of them having had three or more transfers exclusive of normal progress transfers. Three-fourths of the school leavers had been in attendance 90 per cent of the time school had been in session while they were in the elementary grades. Approximately 40 per cent of those for whom intelligence data were obtainable had I.Q.'s above 95. Seventy per cent came from homes in which they lived with both parents. Parents of the drop-outs seemed to be typical of the average wage-earners.

The school histories of the drop-outs present a somewhat atypical picture. The majority of cases had experienced grade or subject failures; 70 per cent had repeated one or more elementary grades, while a few had repeated more than two grades. Grades 1, 3, and 4 were the ones most frequently repeated at the elementary-school level. Fifty-eight per cent of the early school leavers who repeated grades had I.Q.'s below 95, but about 40 per cent of those with I.Q.'s below 95 had not repeated any grades. In contrast, about 30 per cent of those who repeated grades had I.Q.'s of 95 or over and about 11 per cent had I.Q.'s over 105. Inadequacy of school records made it extremely difficult to obtain complete information on many cases.⁸

Most studies of early school leavers have been general in character or they have focused specifically upon drop-outs at the secondary-school

⁷ Bloise and Foster, *op. cit.*, Ch. 1, p. 43, Table 28.

⁸ Harold J. Dillon, *Early School Leavers: A Major Educational Problem* (New York, National Child Labor Committee, 1949).

level.⁹ Such emphasis is logical since the adolescent period is the time when the problem is most acute. There is need, however, for comparable studies which highlight the relationships of the elementary school, since an important although small percentage of the drop-outs leave school while they are still in the elementary grades. The elementary school also needs to see its role more clearly regarding the possible bearing that the child's elementary-school experience may have upon his decision to drop out after he has entered but before he has completed the secondary-school course. Hayes' study of 50 Spanish-name elementary-school drop-outs in a small Texas community sheds a little light on the problem from the latter angle.¹⁰ Only 14 of the group had sufficiently poor command of the English language so that the language deficiency could have been a major cause for leaving school. The age of the 50 students at the time they quit school ranged from 10 to 17; 12 were 13 years of age or younger; and all but 13 were under 16 years old, the legal age in Texas beyond which compulsory attendance is no longer required. Twenty-one of the group were girls. The grades in which the students were enrolled at the time of withdrawal were as follows: Grade 2, three; Grade 3, seven; Grade 4, nineteen; Grade 5, three; Grade 6, nine; Grade 7, three; and Grade 8, six. Thirty-six of the 50 pupils came from homes in which the parents engaged in migratory labor. Only 11 of the group had disliked school at the time of withdrawal. Thirty-six of them were receiving poor or failing marks in school. Only one student, a girl, quit school to get married. Eighteen girls and three boys were unemployed at the time the follow-up study was made; the rest were engaged in a variety of miscellaneous jobs at which they earned from \$500 to \$2100 per year. A significant observation in the study was the fact that cessation of schooling had left these young people unprepared to compete for the better paying jobs which required more skill and education than they had. Quitting school early, as well as their retarded progress in school, gave them a continuing handicap in the socio-economic sense.

Even though the number and scope of studies now available and the amount of information at hand regarding children of elementary-school age who are not enrolled in any school are limited, it seems clear that the problem of nonattenders is sufficiently large and complex to warrant special attention by elementary-school workers. This is a point at which a continuing census, careful checking of membership against census records, and effective attendance service could be utilized.

⁹ J. Armand Lanier, "Guidance-Faculty Study of Withdrawals," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 43 (November, 1949), pp. 205-212.

¹⁰ James V. Hayes, *An Analysis of Latin-American Partial Attendance and Drop-outs in the Elementary Schools of Eagle Pass, Texas*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1952.

As stated earlier, the second phase of the nonattendance problem consists of keeping those enrolled in regular attendance. In 1947-1948 the average daily attendance in the continental United States was 87.3 per cent of the enrollment, the highest such percentage since 1870. The percentages of pupils enrolled who were in average daily attendance ranged from 81.8 in South Carolina to 95.0 in Vermont. The real significance of the amount of absenteeism can be seen best in relation to the number of days schools were in session in the various states. In the 48 states in 1947-1948, elementary schools were in session an average of 176.8 days, the range being from 150 days in Mississippi to 186.1 days in Illinois. The average number of days attended per pupil enrolled was 155.1 in the 48 states. This was the highest number of days attended per pupil ever reached in this country. If the amount of nonattendance is translated into percentage of term not utilized, the figures are: 12.7 for the continental United States, less than 10 in 9 states, from 11 to 20 in 38 states, and over 20 in 1 state.

The causes of nonattendance are not always as apparent as one might think. The earlier investigations, which relied largely on statements made by pupils or parents, showed that about 50 per cent of nonattendance was caused by the illness of the child. Studies made in more recent years have taken greater account of the possibility of the unreliability of excuses for absences made by pupils and parents. Although the later studies still report illness as a prominent cause of nonattendance, particularly among pupils from the poorer sections of town, illness does not maintain the high rank shown in the earlier investigations. Such factors as distance from school, parental neglect, laxity of teachers in keeping records and reporting absences, farm work, and complex social problems were found to be of greater significance than illness. There is some evidence to show that absences due to minor illnesses, such as colds and mild digestive upsets, have increased since similar studies were made in the 1920's.¹¹ This increase in illness may be due to parental solicitude. Absences due to colds hit the peak in mid-winter months, whereas digestive upsets and headache symptoms flourish more extensively in fall and spring months.¹²

Any school staff that is active in promoting a high percentage of daily attendance must always temper its zeal and select motivating devices which will not conflict with good home and school health practices. Schools have made much progress in improving their role in the control of communicable diseases; this role can be jeopardized easily by attendance campaigns which put pressure on the child and parents and at times embarrass the child if

¹¹ Antonio Ciocco and Isidore Altman, "Sickness Absenteeism Among White Children in Hagerstown, Maryland, 1940-43," *Child Development*, Vol. 15 (June, 1944), pp. 81-88.

¹² Isidore Altman and Antonio Ciocco, "School Absence Due to Sickness in the War Years," *Child Development*, Vol. 16 (December, 1945), pp. 189-199.

he stays home when ill. Much progress has also been made in educating parents in the health care of pupils; the gains thus achieved should not be undone by improper means for bolstering school attendance. In states in which state aid is distributed on the basis of average daily attendance, some schools are tempted into special drives to bolster attendance. Special care must be exercised in such states to make sure that efforts to improve average daily attendance do not countermand sound health practices.

There are no recent data which show what proportion of elementary-school absenteeism is due to truancy, but it is common knowledge that practically every school system has some truancy among elementary-school pupils. Mullen's report throws some light on the nature of the truancy problem.¹³ Her study consisted of the analysis of the individual examinations administered to 1628 children by the Bureau of Child Study of the Chicago Board of Education. The 1628 cases included only pupils who had been referred to the Bureau because of truancy or severe classroom misconduct. Of the total group, 735 were preadolescents, 224 of whom had been referred because of truancy and 511 because of severe misconduct. Mullen reported that the total group consisted of cases with a high incidence of factors other than truancy or misconduct; in fact both types of behavior are merely symptoms of personality and adjustment problems. These children have many physical handicaps (vision, hearing, teeth, and so forth), though perhaps not more so than children representing other types of school problems but who have not developed conspicuous behavior deviations. They have, however, had more erratic school histories than other children referred to the Bureau; they come from homes representing many more social and family problems; and they show poorer personal adjustment. Both types of children suffered extreme educational retardation as to grade placement and achievement in the skill subjects. In general, children who chose truancy rather than classroom disorder as a method of escape from the tensions of the school situation had more home problems such as crowded homes, broken homes, families on relief, parents or siblings delinquent or criminal, step-parents, and foster home placement. For both the truant and the classroom misconduct groups, serious educational problems appeared to be more prominent among the preadolescent children while home and social problems were more extensive in the adolescent group.

Mullen's study reaffirms viewpoints that had been evolving for some time, namely, that truancy as well as severe classroom misconduct are merely the overt symptoms of more deep-rooted problems which must be discovered and ameliorated before the situation can be corrected. The tendency to seek and treat the causes rather than the symptoms represents

¹³ Frances A. Mullen, "Truancy and Classroom Disorder as Symptoms of Personality Problems," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 41 (February, 1950), pp. 97-109.

the modern approach to resolving the nonattendance problem. Nonattendance is being recognized as a symptom associated with a variety of complex and deep-rooted social and economic factors which need to be identified, understood, and remedied before the nonattendance problem can be satisfactorily cleared up. The problem of nonattendance, in more than half the cases, thus becomes a problem of social case work for which case work techniques should be used.

CHILDREN OF MIGRATORY WORKERS

A migratory worker is a person whose principal income is earned from temporary employment and who in the course of a year's work moves one or more times, often through several states. The economy of this country utilizes a great deal of seasonal employment in many occupations, but it is only in agriculture that migratory labor has become a problem of such proportions and complexity as to call for repeated investigations and continued concern by public bodies. This is the reason why the term "migratory worker" has become almost synonymous with "migratory farm laborer."

Among the reasons for migrancy, the foremost is that many people find it impossible to make a living in a single location and hence have had to seek employment in many places each year. No large group of migrants has remained permanently migratory. This is the best evidence that people are not migrants by choice.¹⁴ Prior to the immigration law of 1917, we depended upon European immigrants for seasonal farm work. At one time the farm employers of the West Coast thought they had a permanent migratory labor force in the Chinese, Japanese, and Hindus, but all of these settled down in permanent homes as soon as circumstances made permanent residence possible. During the 1910's and 1920's the "hobos" constituted the nearest approach to professional migrants this country ever had, but they, too, have settled down and no longer count significantly in the migratory labor force. During the 1930's the largest element in the migratory labor group was the "Okie," a collective name applied to displaced persons from the "dust bowl" areas of Oklahoma, Arkansas, Missouri, and Texas. This group, too, settled down as economic conditions improved. Then, in the late 1930's, four other groups emerged as migratory farm laborers. Two of these groups are citizens of this country; they are "Texas-Mexicans" (a term commonly applied to Texans of Mexican or other Latin American origin) and Negroes who have their home base in Florida during the winter months and then move northward during spring and summer along the Atlantic seaboard. Another group, numbering about

¹⁴ Maurice T. Van Hecke, chairman, *Migratory Labor In American Agriculture: Report of the President's Commission On Migratory Labor* (Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1951).

100,000 annually, consists of citizens of Mexico who come to the United States during summer months under legal contract to do seasonal labor. The fourth group, about 400,000 in number, are illegal entries of Mexican citizens who manage to by-pass immigration officials and add themselves to the labor force in border states, particularly in Texas. Since these illegal entries cross the narrow and shallow Rio Grande River at points other than the official bridges, they have been nicknamed "wetbacks." Altogether the present migratory labor force in this country numbers about one million, although seasonal conditions may reduce that number by half or increase it to nearly two million. About half of the total each year consists of U. S. citizens. These figures are estimates because it is impossible to get an accurate count.

There are six major migratory movements each year. Route I is along the eastern seaboard. Workers traditionally leave Florida in the spring and the migratory stream expands in volume with additional hundreds of persons from Alabama, Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey. The stream moves northward into New York and Connecticut, with some moving as far north and east as Maine. Route II is from the south into the central and Great Lakes states. The workers come principally from Texas, but some come from Florida, Oklahoma, Arkansas, Missouri, Tennessee, and Kentucky. The employment, beginning in the late spring, is largely in fruits, truck crops, berries, sugar beets, tomatoes, peas, and other vegetables in the northern states. Route III is from the south into the 10 Great Plains wheat-growing states. The work starts in western Texas in May and then moves northward and westward into New Mexico, Oklahoma, Kansas, Colorado, Nebraska, Wyoming, South Dakota, Montana, and North Dakota. Route IV includes workers from Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California who move into the mountain states in early summer. Route V is known as the "West Coast Migration." Workers from southern California and Arizona move northward into northern California, Oregon, Washington, and Idaho. Route VI follows a different direction. Instead of workers moving from southern regions in northerly directions, this movement is an east-west migration, starting as far east as Ohio and picking up additional members from Arkansas, Oklahoma, and Texas. During summer months these workers move westward into Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona, Idaho, Utah, and California. Of course, in each of the routes, the workers return to home base in the fall months, picking up as much seasonal work as possible along the way. In general, the migratory groups leave their winter quarters in late March, April, or early May and then get back to their winter abodes in late October or November.

The migrant laborer who has a family takes his family with him on his annual pilgrimages. The majority of migrants have families and many of the families are large. Since the wages of the migrant worker are usually

low in comparison to the income of permanently employed persons, and since the migrant works only part of the year, the whole family must be put to work as far as possible whenever work is available. In August, 1950, the Bureau of the Census estimated that 190,000 children 10 through 13 years of age and 205,000 14 and 15 years of age were working for pay in agriculture. For October, 1950, the Bureau estimated that 150,000 and 165,000, respectively, of these age groups were working. Nearly 40,000 of the younger group were not even enrolled in any school.

Migratory farm laborers, and their children, move restlessly over the face of the land, but they neither belong to the land nor does the land belong to them. They pass through community after community, but they neither claim the community as home nor does the land of a year claim them. They are never in one place long enough "to belong." Due to poverty, customs, skin color, poor housing (trailer camps, tents, or shabby shacks), health needs, and the fact that they must travel with meager belongings, these migrants are welcome additions to the local labor force but are otherwise unwanted and nonaccepted in the communities in which they make their temporary residences. They are never in one place long enough to qualify as voters, for health and welfare services, or to enable school systems to count their children as a basis for state aid or local budget-making.

The migrant worker and his family lead a hard life. The results are particularly tragic in terms of their children's education. They leave their winter residences in late March, April, or May and do not return to them until late October or November. Children are withdrawn from school in spring before the end of the term and re-enter late in the fall. Many do not re-enter at all. During the late spring and early fall months these people are traveling most of the time. When work is available, mostly during summer months, the children's help is needed to augment the family income. In some states, particularly New Jersey, Michigan, and California, summer schools were established for children of migratory workers. California even experimented with mobile schools. But all of these efforts proved unsuccessful for a variety of reasons, and most of them have been discontinued.

The most extensive efforts to serve the educational needs of migratory children have been made in the states in which the migrants spend the winter months. Extra classrooms are opened and additional teachers employed as the migrants begin to come back in the late fall. But the problems associated with educational provisions for children who receive only from four to six months of schooling per year are numerous and extremely difficult, especially when many of the children are non-English-speaking or have only a very meager command of English. Table 25 illustrates one phase of the problem. The data in the table show that through September and October the number actually in membership remained under 400. By January the membership had increased to over 800. In October an additional teacher was employed in the fifth grade. In December two more

teachers were added, one in the fourth grade and one more in the fifth grade. Three more teachers were employed in January, one in the first grade and two in the second grade. It is difficult, especially in a small community, to find well qualified teachers after the school year has opened who are willing to be employed only part of a school year. Class membership and the size of classes are shifting throughout the term. In the particular school in which the data of Table 25 were gathered, classes which began in September with 20 to 25 pupils gradually increased until in January each one had from 38 to 50 pupils, and then dwindled during the spring months so that they contained only 28 to 34 pupils. Usually a new teacher cannot be employed and a new section created until the classes in two contiguous grades have become large enough so that the overflow from existing classes will be enough to make a new section. It is impossible under such circumstances to maintain even reasonable equality in the size of classes for the school as a whole. Teacher loads and the crowding of classrooms present a very heterogeneous and uneven picture.

TABLE 25: Membership by Months—September, 1951, Through May, 1952—Southside Elementary School, San Marcos, Texas *

MONTHS	MEMBERSHIP BY GRADES						TOTAL
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
1. Sept.	98	87	65	63	33	7	353
2. Oct.	103	98	67	69	46	12	390
3. Nov.	109	108	77	73	55	9	431
4. Dec.	143	133	96	94	83	12	561
5. Jan.	223	190	133	125	116	26	813
6. Feb.	223	191	131	123	115	24	807
7. Mar.	222	181	125	119	106	18	771
8. April	190	156	112	105	88	14	665
9. May	164	141	98	92	60	14	569

* Courtesy of Mrs. Nan Mitchell, Principal, Southside Elementary School, San Marcos, Texas.

Table 25 illustrates another important factor, namely, the large enrollments in the primary grades and the proportionately small enrollment in the intermediate grades, especially in Grade 6. Such disproportionate enrollment in primary and intermediate grades is due to many factors, chief among which are the language deficiency of the Spanish-name migrants, their retardation in both achievement and grade placement, and the fact that the older ones tend to avoid re-entrance in school.

The scope and difficulty of the problem of providing schooling for migrants during their winter residence in southern states are illuminated further in Tables 26, 27, and 28. In the community of Eagle Pass, Texas, from 27 to 56 per cent of the total annual enrollment consists of migrants (Table 26). Some who do start school at the beginning of the term in

TABLE 26: Late Entries During 1950-1951 Distributed by Grades and Showing the Percentage Which Late Entries Are of the Total Enrollment, Elementary Schools, Eagle Pass, Texas *

LATE ENTRIES	GRADES											
	1		2		3		4		5		6	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Boys	180	55	87	48	81	42	57	41	59	40	27	27
Girls	164	56	74	43	76	41	49	36	38	34	22	27

* From James V. Hayes, *An Analysis of Latin-American Partial Attendance and Drop-Outs in the Elementary Schools of Eagle Pass, Texas*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1952, p. 52.

TABLE 27: Distribution of Withdrawals by Grade and Month of Withdrawal During 1950-1951 School Year, Elementary Schools, Eagle Pass, Texas *

MONTHS	NUMBER OF WITHDRAWALS FOR EACH GRADE					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Sept.	13	5	12	5	3	2
2. Oct.	11	3	7	1	3	1
3. Nov.	6	8	2	1	1	1
4. Dec.	5	5	7	3	4	-
5. Jan.	14	7	11	1	2	4
6. Feb.	23	3	6	8	4	1
7. Mar.	22	13	20	8	18	7
8. Apr.	99	40	38	31	23	16
9. May	60	33	24	28	23	13
Total	253	117	127	86	81	45

* From James V. Hayes, *An Analysis of Latin-American Partial Attendance and Drop-Outs in the Elementary Schools of Eagle Pass, Texas*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1952, p. 61.

TABLE 28: Distribution of Pupils Who Entered Late, Withdrew Before the End of the School Term, or Both by Grade and Days in Membership During the School Year 1950-1951, Elementary Schools, Eagle Pass, Texas *

GRADE	NUMBER OF PUPILS FOR EACH OF THE "DAYS IN MEMBERSHIP" INTERVALS						
	1-30	31-60	61-90	91-120	121-150	151-180	TOTAL
1	62	62	104	73	38	53	392
2	38	31	48	40	14	24	195
3	56	36	37	37	16	26	208
4	38	16	34	19	26	14	147
5	25	27	33	20	12	18	135
6	1	10	11	15	16	10	63
Total	220	182	267	204	122	142	1,130

* From James V. Hayes, *An Analysis of Latin-American Partial Attendance and Drop-Outs in the Elementary Schools of Eagle Pass, Texas*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1952, p. 69.

September drop out even before the end of the first month of school; others withdraw during each of the succeeding months (Table 27), the peak of withdrawals occurring in April. The amount of schooling which some of them actually receive is very little, ranging from less than 30 days to more than 150 days (Table 28). When circumstances such as those which surround schooling for children of migrant laborers prevail in a community, it is difficult to provide a desirable organization within a school to deal satisfactorily with census problems, and to administer compulsory school attendance appropriately.

CHILD LABOR AND SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Child labor laws were passed to protect the health, growth, welfare, and education of children. Today the child labor problem may be considered in four broad categories. In industry child labor has all but disappeared. Only in agriculture does it remain a serious problem. In agriculture the employment of children of migratory families has been mentioned in the preceding discussion. But there are other groups of children involved in agricultural labor. In many cases the farmer's own children are required to engage at too young an age in work that is too difficult for them. In many cases where tasks and ages are appropriately matched, the children are kept out of school to help with the farm work. The fourth group of young workers consists of children who go to school but work before or after school hours and on week ends.

There are two federal laws regulating child labor in agriculture. The Sugar Act of 1937, which provides for payments of benefits to growers of sugar beets and sugarcane, states that producers are eligible for full benefit payments only if they do not employ children under 14 years of age or do not permit those between 14 and 16 years of age to work longer than eight hours a day. These restrictions do not apply to children whose parents are themselves growers owning 40 per cent or more of the crop. Since enforcement of the Act is in the hands of local committees, few violations are reported.

A more comprehensive federal law affecting child labor is the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938. The intent of those provisions of the law relating to child labor was to release children from work so that they could attend school. Originally, the law stated that no child below age 16 could be employed while legally required to attend school. Because of wide variations among the states in compulsory school attendance laws, it was difficult to enforce the intent of the law. Hence it was revised in 1949 and now states that no child below age 16 can be employed in agriculture during school hours.¹⁵ Cooperation in enforcing this law has been good in many localities.

¹⁵ Von Hecke, *op. cit.*, p. 163.

Strongest opposition to the law and its enforcement has come from areas in which migrant family labor is used regularly.

Each state has its own child labor laws, some of which are excellent and more rigid than the federal laws, but some are very inadequate. Important differences between state and federal laws frequently lead to the neglect of whichever type has the most rigid provisions. Since the enforcement staffs of the states are usually insufficient in number, enforcement must be left to good will and local officials, the latter frequently finding it difficult to countermand local sentiment. The net result is that much illegal child labor still exists, particularly in agriculture.

Differences between the provisions of federal or state child labor laws and the compulsory school attendance laws in a given state frequently create loopholes which are capitalized upon by parents, employers, or enforcement officials. Leaders in education should join hands with other organizations interested in child welfare to bring about coordination of federal and local child labor laws and full coordination between the farmer and the local school attendance laws. The President's Commission on Migratory Labor recommended the following generally accepted standards as desirable for both state and federal legislation: a minimum age of 16 years during school hours, and 14 years during out-of-school hours and vacation periods; for persons under 18, authorized work permits and age certificates, and limitation of work to eight hours per day and 40 hours per week.¹⁶

Some communities have tried to solve the problem of harvesting seasonal crops by dismissing school for a week or more during the peak of the harvest season. This has the advantage of not causing illegal absence from school by children who would be working in the fields anyhow. A disadvantage of the plan is that it might encourage many very young children to be put to work who otherwise might have been kept in school. Release from school for pupils old enough to qualify legally for farm work during vacation periods does not always insure that the full quota of such students will join the labor force during that period. In one community high-school students were given a two-week vacation to help pick cotton. Out of 472 students nearly 300 signed up to pick cotton but only 72 actually made it to the fields the first day. The 72 who did pick cotton the first day picked three bales. The resulting equation was: 472 school days produced three bales of cotton. Other communities have had similar experiences. Part of the explanation of the small returns from the plan is that so many parents do not want their children to engage in that type of labor. This may reflect curious values and conflicting values held by parents but it does raise serious questions for the school administrator.

Some children work for wages in addition to attending school. A survey of 4014 wage-earning school children in large, small, and middle-sized rural and urban communities revealed that 11 per cent were in fourth and

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 164.

fifth grades; 11 per cent in the sixth grade; 27 per cent in seventh and eighth grades; and 51 per cent in secondary-school grades.¹⁷ Ten per cent were under 12 years of age; 24 per cent were 12 and 13 years old; 32 per cent were 14 and 15 years old; and the rest were 16 years or older. Somewhat over two-thirds of these young workers were boys. About one in four of the total group worked at least once a week for more than eight hours a day. Most of the days on which they worked longer than seven hours were on week ends. For 42 per cent the longest work days were 7 hours or less; 17 per cent worked one or more 8-hour days, 9 per cent worked one or more 9-hour days; 21 per cent worked one or more days of 10 to 14 hours, while 11 per cent gave no information regarding the length of their work days. Of the 3352 children who gave information about their weekly hours of work, 56 per cent worked 18 hours or less a week; 13 per cent worked from 19 to 24 hours per week, while 31 per cent worked 25 or more hours per week. Eighteen hours of work per week is considered the maximum reasonable number of working hours for children who are working part time in addition to attending school. The number of hours worked per week was not broken down by age groups; hence the study does not show whether children under 14 years of age as well as older ones were included in the heavy weekly work loads.

Getting an appropriate balance between time in school and time in work and having the sum of the two make a reasonable weekly schedule is one of the problems facing parents and schools in regard to children who also work for wages. Another problem is to keep the types of jobs adjusted to the child's age, to keep children from employment at illegal ages, and to obtain jobs at hours of the day that are fair to children who also go to school. Newspaper routes and other tasks which must be performed as early as 3, 4, or 5 A.M. or after 9 P.M. cannot help but result in fatigue and sleepiness during school hours and hazards to children's health. The survey previously mentioned showed that 44 children under 12 years of age did not stop working until after 9 P.M., several not quitting until after midnight. A few children aged 12 and 13 started working at 3 A.M.; 2 who were 10 years old began at 4 A.M.; and 11 who were 10 and 11 years of age began work at 5 A.M. Similar findings were reported for other age groups.

It is difficult to find and more difficult to administer a reasonable middle ground between two alternatives. Children must be protected against harmful labor and labor that will interfere with their schooling. At the same time there is much merit in work experience. In urban areas the changing nature of society has made it increasingly difficult to give many children genuine work experience suited to their ages and school schedules. Parents and educators alike recognize the value of real work experience as an essen-

¹⁷ Lazelle D. Alway, *An Employment Survey of 4014 Texas School Children* (New York, National Child Labor Committee, 1950).

tial phase of children's education. Yet homes and schools are finding it increasingly difficult to provide graduated work experiences that can fit into a child's program throughout the school-age period. Even farm children today are not getting the types of work experience which have the real educative values that once existed. Urban children who work for wages while going to school are largely children from the poorer homes. Hence, among city children only those from the lower economic brackets are getting real work experience. What can be done to bring the educative values of work experience to all children? This is one of the most puzzling aspects of our present culture, and no feasible solutions appear in sight.

CHANGING ATTITUDES REGARDING ATTENDANCE SERVICE

Research studies relating to nonattendance which have been made during the past 15 years are indicative of the changing attitude regarding attendance service. The chief effort has been to get at the real causes underlying children's absence from school, to use case-study procedures, and to recognize and to deal with the social and economic factors involved. This same trend is evident in the changing qualifications of attendance workers.

Traditionally the function of attendance service was conceived as solely compulsory in character. The duty of an attendance officer was considered to be that of receiving from principals lists of children who failed to appear at school from day to day and making sure that such children did appear. Another duty was to seek out truants upon the streets or in loitering places and to take them directly to school. Bureaus of attendance were very conscious of their responsibility for *enforcement* and permitted compulsion to occupy a prominent place in the formulation of their techniques. When attendance laws were first passed a half century ago, there was a meager understanding of the real nature and causes of truancy. It was assumed that the responsibility of nonattendance lay entirely with the parents and the child, and court action was resorted to as the means for enforcing the law. Workers adequately trained to study thoroughly the problems of truancy were not available, even though the need for them had been felt.

Modern attendance service operates on a higher professional plane. Although enforcement is still one of its responsibilities, it recognizes the interrelationship between truancy, misbehavior, and maladjustment at school and the major social problems with which social economists and social workers in general are engaged. Attendance service is now generally recognized as an educational function. Much of the activity of an attendance bureau consists of social case work which can be carried on successfully only by properly qualified persons.

In recent years much more attention has been given to the study of the

causes of truancy, and attendance service has aimed to be more largely preventive than remedial. Less emphasis has been placed upon the police function of the attendance officer. He has been considered first of all a social worker who can go into the homes and study the social conditions which cause nonattendance at school. The aim of this department is not to get the child back to school irrespective of his attitude and of the attitude of the parent toward the school. It aims, rather, to win the confidence of both the child and the parent, so that when the child does re-enter school it will be with a new appreciation of the school's work and his relation to it, with the result that he will no longer be a maladjusted individual.

ORGANIZATION FOR ATTENDANCE SERVICE

In most of the larger cities attendance service has been organized on a city-wide basis. A central department carrying some such title as Bureau of Compulsory Education, Attendance Department, or Bureau of Pupil Accounting is held responsible for the organization and coordination of the work for the city. The title usually given to the head official in this department is Director of Attendance. Responsible to him may be such persons as the chief of the attendance bureau, chief of the census bureau, the principal of the continuation schools, the chief clerk in charge of issuing work permits, a group of visiting teachers, and a number of stenographers and clerks of various kinds.

Schultz has classified into four groups the types of organization for the administration of attendance service in the 16 cities which he studied.¹⁸

Type I. In school systems of this classification this service is a major division of the school system, embracing all of its special pupil-adjustment services in one department. This department is in direct charge of an assistant superintendent. For example, in Jersey City, attendance work is considered a service which, for many pupils, requires the assistance of specialists such as the psychologist, psychiatrist, physician, dentist, visiting teacher, special teacher, and even the police. Consequently, all special pupil-adjustment workers of the Jersey City school system are merged into one integrated department, in the direct charge of an assistant superintendent.

Type II. In the second type of organization, as in Type I, the attendance service is a major division of the school system, embracing in one department all of its special pupil-adjustment services. However, in cities having Type II organizations, the department is not in charge of an assistant superintendent, but has a director who is responsible for its administration. Four Type II organizations have been studied.

School systems classified as Type I and Type II suggest certain implications which should be noted. In the first place, in both types of organization, attendance work is a unified service. One department assumes the responsibility for the treatment of special cases of maladjusted children. This unification of

¹⁸ J. L. Schultz, *An Analysis of Present Practices in City Attendance Work* (Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania, 1938), pp. 55-57.

services saves the child from the confusion and loss of time which may result if responsibility for various phases of his treatment is assumed by several departments during the same period. Secondly, in the case of Type I systems, the assignment of the work to an assistant superintendent indicates that it represents a major endeavor of the schools.

Type III. In three of the school systems studied classified as this type, the director of attendance is responsible, not to an assistant superintendent, but directly to the city superintendent. Two features seem important in this form of organization; in the first place, it recognizes the significance of the attendance service findings to the city superintendent, and makes provision for the reporting of these findings directly to him, rather than through the office of an assistant superintendent; secondly, the influence of the superintendent may be more effective within the attendance service because of his immediate contacts with the department. Furthermore, these direct contacts should tend to coordinate attendance work and the work of principals and teachers on behalf of problem pupils. There this type of organization should be favorable to effective work with the absentee or problem child whose difficulties arise from educational maladjustment.

Type IV. In the school systems of this classification, the attendance department is one of a number of separate special-service departments or divisions of the school organization. Each of these departments has a different director, although all directors are under the general supervision of one or more assistant superintendents. This arrangement implies that attendance service is not significantly more inclusive than medical service, psychological service, visiting teacher work, or other special services of the schools.

With this type of special-service organization, the effectiveness of attendance work is largely dependent upon the degree of cooperation given by other special adjustment services. Furthermore, responsibility for helping the maladjusted child may tend to disintegrate, since it is distributed among a number of separated services. Since pupil problems, in most cases, are produced by a configuration of several causes rather than by a single cause, the treatment of the pupil by separate departments may not produce the best results, since his difficulties may be seen and treated separately rather than as an integrated whole. Seven of the school systems studied have this form of administrative organization. Type IV is typical of the largest cities investigated.

The functions suggested by the titles of the officials in an attendance department indicate the scope of the activities which must be properly coordinated if a desirable type of social service is to be rendered. Whether or not the law of the state requires that all private and parochial schools report to a central attendance bureau, it is desirable to have the attendance service of a city organized in such a way that a central agency can set up a unified accounting system for *all* the children of compulsory school age within the district. The first step in the development of such a unified program is the establishment of a complete, accurate, and precise system of child accounting records. Little coordination of the work can be done for the city as a whole until a complete and accurate record system is functioning for all public, private, and parochial schools, thus providing means for stopping all "leaks" of hundreds of children from school attendance.

Another essential feature of the organization for attendance service is

a permanent continuing census. In many cities hundreds of children are lost each year and are indicated as "not located." Under a well-organized system of child accounting the number of such cases should be extremely small. Experience has demonstrated that the old-fashioned school census of the annual house-to-house canvas type is practically valueless for large cities. Other techniques must be employed to maintain a permanent, continuing census. Essential to the maintenance of a continuing census are permanent records which provide for each child a cumulative individual record of attendance, promotion, scholarship, health, and achievement as well as a minimum of social data. These various types of data should be circulated with the children as they move from school to school. It is also essential that there be maintained a central file into which the records of withdrawals go and out of which the records of readmitted pupils come, no matter how long the interval of withdrawal may be. In addition, it is desirable to set up complete case records for problem cases. It is only with the aid of a complete, accurate, and up-to-date record system that the work of an attendance bureau can be conducted effectively and the work of the various members of the staff properly coordinated.

Davis has prepared an excellent check list of desirable practices regarding attendance service. It can be used by local schools as a tool for evaluating local practice.¹⁹

- A. Permanent and continuing census—A permanent and continuing census of the child population should be maintained.
 1. The census includes a permanent and continuous record of all children in the district from birth to age twenty-one.
 2. The census records include an alphabetical card file with a card for each child.
 3. The accuracy of the census is maintained by a continuing enumeration of the child population.
 4. The accuracy of the census is maintained by reports from schools on admissions, changes of address, transfers, and withdrawals.
 5. The accuracy of the census is maintained by cooperation with community agencies, such as the bureau of vital statistics, express and moving companies, police, and social agencies.
 6. Other census data are supplemented by a yearly enumeration of all children.
- B. Checking of enrollment against census—The enrollment at the opening of the school should be checked with the school census, with a view to securing the enrollment of all pupils who should be in school.
 1. The attendance department sees to it that the enrollment in each school is compared with the census.
 2. Checking of enrollment with census is done at the beginning of the school term.

¹⁹ Hazel Davis, *Personnel Administration in Three Non-Teaching Services of the Public Schools*, Contributions to Education, No. 784 (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939), pp. 383-388.

3. Prompt investigation is made to secure the enrollment of children of school age listed in the census who are not in school.
- C. Cooperation with Non-Public Schools—The attendance department should seek to assist and to enlist the cooperation of non-public schools.
 1. The enrollments of non-public schools are checked against the child census.
 2. The attendance officer investigates cases of absence reported by non-public schools and assists in securing adjustments.
- D. Prompt Investigation of Absences—The attendance officer should investigate promptly all cases of absence referred to him and should make prompt report on the reasons discovered for the absence and the adjustment made.
 1. The attendance officer secures information daily from each school which he serves as to cases of absence which should be investigated.
 2. The attendance officer investigates promptly all cases referred to him, if possible on the same day they are received.
 3. The attendance officer reports back to the school on all cases referred to him, giving reasons discovered for the absence and stating the adjustment made.
- E. Follow-Up on Transfers of Pupils—Transfers of pupils from one school to another should be immediately followed up by the attendance officer to protect children from loss of school attendance.
 1. The attendance officer secures a notice of each transfer from school to school of a pupil.
 2. The attendance department makes sure that each child transferred is promptly enrolled in the receiving school.
- F. Cooperation with Teachers and Other School Workers—The attendance officer should know school policies and work cooperatively with teachers.
 1. The attendance officer has conferred with the principal of each school in his district with respect to special objectives and activities of the current school term.
 2. The attendance officer attends conferences with teachers and others for consideration of attendance and child adjustment problems.
 3. The attendance officer visits schools on a definite schedule, so that teachers know when the officer is in the building and available for consultation.
 4. The officer secures information about the pupil's work and problems of adjustment in school before visiting the pupil's home.
 5. The attendance officer discusses with the teachers concerned the cases which need special attention, reporting to teachers on home conditions.
 6. The attendance officer reports cases to the school nurse or other worker when such action seems appropriate.
- G. Cooperation with Community Services—The attendance officer should cooperate with community agencies in seeking to eliminate causes of absence.
 1. The attendance officer has available a list of all welfare, social, and religious agencies which are prepared to render assistance.
 2. Where a confidential exchange of social agencies exists, the attendance officer cooperates in its use.

3. The attendance officer helps to secure institutional care or other outside aid for pupils whose parents cannot pay for such services.
- H. Case-Work with Habitual Truants—Cases of persistent non-attendance which may lead to delinquency and court action should be made the basis of case-work records and intensive study.
1. Case-records are available showing analysis of causes of difficulty and reporting efforts at adjustment in cases of habitual non-attendance.
 2. Repeated visits and follow-up of home and school adjustments are made in cases representing the most serious problems.
- I. Court Action as Last Resort—When all other means fail, the attendance department should take court action to secure school attendance.
1. Opportunity is given for an informal hearing by school authorities in the effort to bring about adjustment without court action.
 2. A pupil who is habitually absent is transferred to a different school and given another trial before initiating court action.
 3. If other measures fail, court action is initiated.
 4. Detailed records of evidence are prepared for cases presented in court.
- J. Records and Reports—Comprehensive records and reports on work done should be made by the attendance department.
1. The attendance officer keeps a daily record of activities.
 2. The attendance officer keeps records of the approximate distribution of his time among various duties performed.
 3. The attendance officer files a weekly or monthly report of his services, giving an accounting of cases investigated and a general analysis of their types and disposition.
 4. Annual reports are prepared covering all services rendered by the attendance department.
 5. Records are available which show trends from year to year in:
 - a. Percent of children of compulsory school age who are in daily attendance in school.
 - b. Percent of all children enrolled who are in daily attendance in school.
 - c. Number of days of absence, and whether lawful or unlawful, of pupils who are enrolled.

ATTENDANCE PROBLEMS AND THE LOCAL SCHOOL

Each local school unit within the city has very immediate relations with the problems of nonattendance. It is in the local unit that the first record of pupil absences is made. A common practice is for school principals to report all absences daily to the attendance officer. The purpose of such a complete daily report is not that the attendance officer shall forthwith investigate all cases so reported. It merely aids the attendance bureau in checking upon the extent to which the principals and teachers are handling their own attendance problems. Obviously many absences are of a temporary and unavoidable character and can be handled by telephone from the principal's office. A second report of absences should be sent. This latter report would include those cases which the school has failed

to control. It is here that the individual school can render a real service to increase the quality and effectiveness of the attendance officer's work. If each report is accompanied by as complete a history of the child as it is possible for the school to obtain, the attendance official is put in possession of a host of information which might take him days to procure and which will enable him to approach the case from the viewpoint of a social worker who is trying to understand all the related factors and to bring about a readjustment of the child and the establishment of wholesome, normal attitudes.

It must be remembered that frequently the causes of truancy rest primarily within the school itself. In many instances the schools are organized, administered, and taught as of yore. The school is a formalized institution with rigid and uniform procedures. Teachers and principals devoted to their special tasks lose patience with the nonconforming child. They prefer the youths that readily adjust themselves to the daily routine of the school. Owing to lack of time, proper techniques, or interest on the part of teachers, the idiosyncrasies of pupils are not studied and no attempts are made to adjust school procedures to the peculiar needs of certain pupils. Constant demand for conformity without proper recognition of the emotional and other factors surrounding the case aggravates the situation until an otherwise normal child may become maladjusted or even be classed as "atypical." If that situation is reached, behavior or truant problems may develop. It then becomes the path of least resistance to pass on to behavior centers, truant, or parental schools all those who are problems, whether natural or school-created. It is perhaps not far from truth to state that if techniques were applied which would give a real understanding of the child and if proper attempts were made to adjust school procedures to individual differences, thus providing each child with work suited to his level of ability and with dynamic centers of interest which lend motivation, a large majority of the potential unadjusted children would never become problem cases.

Each local school thus occupies a strategic position with reference to attendance problems. It is within the school and its surrounding environment that the problems arise. The initial report to the central attendance bureau must originate in the local unit. The person who investigates the case works in close cooperation with the parents and the teachers and the principal. Finally, the pupil who has been absent or has become a behavior problem must be adjusted to the school, its environment, and its purposes. Any facts obtained by the social workers which supplement the school records should be made available to teachers and utilized in all possible ways in effecting a readjustment of the child. All of these relationships between the local school and attendance service are obviously in addition to the large majority of cases which are handled directly by the principal and the teacher.

THE TEACHER'S RELATIONS TO ATTENDANCE PROBLEMS

Because the teacher is directly responsible for the work of instruction and is in immediate supervision of the progress and growth of pupils, she is more interested in good attendance than is any other person in the school organization. The teacher perhaps realizes most fully the interruptions in her work and the gaps in pupil progress which are caused by absences. The magnitude of this problem may be observed in the fact that on the average more than 10 per cent of the total number of children enrolled in city elementary schools are absent each day. When pupils miss school, it is desirable that the work should be made up. If a conscientious attempt is made by teachers to have pupils compensate through extra work for the time missed, much teacher time is consumed in follow-up instruction. If the teacher time requisite for make-up work is not available and pupils are readmitted to class groups which by this time have progressed to advanced stages in the work for the grade, there are dangers of creating for the pupil a situation which may result in maladjustment, retardation, and failure.

Among other responsibilities regarding attendance which rest upon the classroom teacher are the daily reporting of absences, understanding home conditions and cooperating with the home in securing regular and willing attendance, and developing a proper attitude toward pupils and wholesome attitudes among pupils. The latter is a very important factor in determining regularity of attendance. In the last analysis it is the classroom teacher who exerts a potent influence in determining the environment and activities of children while they are in school, and in her hands rests the responsibility for applying educational procedures which will prevent maladjustment, truancy, and behavior cases.

VISITING-TEACHER SERVICE

As the real causes underlying undue absenteeism or complete non-attendance at school became more widely known and understood, it was only natural that attitudes regarding the enforcement of compulsory school attendance should change and that new avenues should be sought to assist with the problem. The visiting-teacher movement was an outgrowth of such recognition of the nature of the problem by leaders in the field of education and in the field of social work. The movement was started in New York City in 1906 by private initiative.²⁰ Public spirited organizations inaugurated similar services in Boston and Hartford in 1907, in Philadelphia in 1909, and in Worcester, Massachusetts in 1910. It was not

²⁰ J. J. Oppenheimer, *The Visiting Teacher Movement* (New York, Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency, Public Education Association, 1924).

until after 1913 that boards of education undertook to sponsor the work. Rochester, New York, was the first city in which the board of education was responsible for the inception of visiting-teacher service.²¹ Between 1913 and 1921 similar plans were inaugurated in Kansas City (1915); Chicago (1919); Minneapolis (1916); Newton, Massachusetts; Mt. Vernon, New York; Utica, New York; Mason City, Iowa; and Fargo, North Dakota. The period from 1914 to 1921 is characterized by the general adoption of this type of service by other cities. The period from 1921 to the present has been called the period of natural expansion in visiting-teacher work. It is during this time that attention has centered largely upon the development and improvement of the service and a critical study of the specific functions and contributions which can be made by this form of social service.

Visiting-teacher service has expanded consistently from the early beginnings described in the preceding paragraph. In April, 1944, the U. S. Office of Education sent a questionnaire to 1100 school superintendents in cities of 10,000 or more population. Of the 748 who replied, 266 reported "organized services" represented by at least one worker especially employed for this purpose, and 102 said that their school systems were offering the service on a part-time basis by some staff member other than a visiting teacher.²² The number of visiting teachers per school system having "organized services" ranged from 1 part-time person in 28 systems and 1 full-time person in 131 systems to 292 (including 90 attendance officers) in Philadelphia.

The work load of visiting teachers is difficult to define. One approach has been to calculate the ratio of visiting teachers to total school enrollment. In the survey reported by Cook 6 cities reported 1000 or fewer pupils enrolled per visiting teacher, whereas 10 cities reported from 10,000 to 25,000 and over per full-time worker. The difficulty with using total school enrollment is that the need for visiting-teacher services varies so much in terms of the proportion of pupils in need of assistance; one school with 500 pupils might have enough cases to keep a worker busy full time, whereas another school with 1500 students might require only the part-time help of one visiting teacher. When the state-wide program in Michigan was initiated in 1944 it was anticipated that one visiting teacher should be able to serve a school population of 2500. On the assumption that 2 per cent of the pupils might require the help of a visiting teacher, the case load per worker was defined as 50 to 75 cases. A case-load formula would seem to be a better basis than total enrollment for determining the

²¹ Mabel B. Ellis, *The Visiting Teacher in Rochester* (New York, Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency, Public Education Association, 1925), p. 39.

²² Katherine M. Cook, *The Place of Visiting Teacher Services in the School Program*, Bulletin No. 6 (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1945), p. 18.

number of visiting teachers needed in a given school system, especially if the complexity of cases is taken into consideration.

There is some disagreement as to the title whereby these workers shall be identified. The original title was "visiting teacher," and when the professional organization of visiting teachers was first established in 1919 it was known as the National Association of Visiting Teachers; later, the name was changed to American Association of Visiting Teachers and now it is called American Association of School Social Workers. In Cook's survey report the name "visiting teacher" was used in 122 of the 266 cities and only eight cities used the title "school social worker"; but at least 48 other titles were reported. It would seem that school administrators would find it easier to communicate with school-board members and the public if the title of these workers implied a *school* relationship. The term "teacher," by whatever adjective it is modified, has a recognized place in a school program and hence requires less explanation than a person called a social worker. Since the work of a visiting teacher involves an integration of school and social services it is easy to see some merit in recognizing the latter aspect of the work in the person's title, but since the purpose of the service is to assist children with their schooling there is logic in retaining the "teacher" identification.²³

The scope of work of the visiting teacher is almost as broad as the entire educational environment of the child. For the cases referred to her, the visiting teacher attempts to discover and to effect a correction of the factors in the child's personal make-up, in his school environment, in his home life, and in his community contacts which are contributing to or actually causing his maladjustment. Studies regarding the duties and activities of visiting teachers have been made from time to time.²⁴ Present practices can be viewed from several sources. Cook's survey report revealed the following functions and the number of cities assigning each function out of the 250 cities from which this type of information was obtained:

TYPE OF FUNCTION	NUMBER OF CITIES
1. Acting as attendance officer	169
2. Working out problems causing nonattendance	233
3. Adjustment of behavior problems	206
4. Home-school relationships	225
5. Referral of problems to outside agency	209
6. Direct treatment of child's difficulty	127

When visiting teacher services were established by legislation on a state-wide basis in Virginia in 1945 the Virginia State Board of Education pub-

²³ Cook, *op. cit.*, pp. 33-35.

²⁴ Oppenheimer, *op. cit.*, pp. 122-124.

Jane F. Culbert, *The Visiting Teacher At Work* (New York, The Commonwealth Fund, 1929).

lished a handbook in which it was recommended that visiting teachers should work with the following groups of people: ²⁵

1. Children: Those not enrolled, dropped, or irregular in attendance; those failing in their work; those exhibiting antisocial behavior; those who are shy and withdrawn; and those who have health problems.
2. Classroom teachers.
3. Parents.

The legislation which created state-wide visiting-teacher service in Michigan in 1944 grew out of a broad concern to do something about the prevention of juvenile delinquency. Consequently the Michigan law specifically says that the program is designed for the prevention and treatment of behavior problems of children. The resulting outline of services and duties of visiting teachers in Michigan is more heavily oriented toward work with children manifesting behavior problems than might be true in other situations. In spite of its special slant, the following outline of visiting-teacher services is helpful: ²⁶

1. The visiting teacher should emphasize the *prevention* of delinquency and the treatment of milder cases. He is the official school representative to handle maladjustments of children. He will make use of all available facilities for treatment and diagnosis, but he remains the responsible agent, unless otherwise mutually agreed upon, for caring for school children and for following up on treatment.
2. The visiting teacher should assist other teachers to recognize symptoms which are significant as indicating possible or probable future delinquency.
3. The visiting teacher should emphasize total faculty planning and understanding of problems and should stimulate cooperative group action in recommending and putting into practice programs which will assist in preventing maladjustment.
4. The regular teacher should accept home calls as part of his responsibility. The visiting teacher may assist or take over this responsibility in special cases.
5. The visiting teacher should study the child and seek to discover causes of the symptoms.
6. The visiting teacher should study the child's needs, the home, school, and community life to discover what in the various environments and associations may cause his behavior problem.
7. The visiting teacher should work with the children, and recommend steps to be taken by others for proper treatment.
8. The visiting teacher should recognize the delinquent who needs psychiatric treatment beyond his ability or training to give, and refer the child to the proper agency.

²⁵ *A Handbook for Visiting Teachers* (Richmond, State Board of Education, 1947), Sec. III.

²⁶ *A State Program for Visiting Teachers* (Lansing, Department of Public Instruction, 1944), pp. 9-10.

9. The visiting teacher should know thoroughly all services, local and state, available from other than school agencies.
10. The visiting teacher should cooperate with all individuals and agencies concerned with the welfare of children, but should not assume their responsibilities nor take over their work. Naturally, the services available in the community will determine somewhat the degree of responsibility by the visiting teacher.
11. Though the visiting teacher will be expected to appear before numerous groups to plan community programs and to explain his work, his time should be so budgeted that it does not interfere with his duty of working with children.
12. The visiting teacher should keep adequate records and make such reports as are assigned to him by the superintendent of schools or commissioner of schools, who in turn will transmit requested reports to the Superintendent of Public Instruction.
13. A part time reimbursed visiting teacher may have other duties assigned to him if first approved by the Superintendent of Public Instruction, but such duties must be of a nature that will not hinder his effectiveness as a visiting teacher; for example, he may not be employed as an attendance officer. He may cooperate with the court to assist parents and children, but only in rare instances will he appear in court as a witness.

The scope and variety of visiting teacher activities are illuminated by analyses made available by the Austin, Texas, public schools.²⁷ In one year the visiting teachers worked with 982 cases which presented a total of 2579 problems. These problems, and their respective frequencies, were summarized as follows:

1. Aspects of home environment (ineffectual parents, broken homes, delinquent homes, family disorganization, pregnant mothers)—840
2. Economic problems (economic deficiency, lunch needs, clothing)—443
3. Cultural patterns (seasonal work, older child having to assume home responsibility, adolescents preferring or needing to work, over-protective parents)—439
4. Health problems (temporary illness, prolonged illness, psychiatric problems, physical handicaps)—375
5. School difficulties (lack of interest, aggravated misbehavior, aggravated truancy, suspensions, improper grade placement)—296
6. Delinquencies (petty thefts, burglaries, assaults, sex problems, runaways, unmarried pregnant girls)—88
7. Miscellaneous (birth and vaccination certificates, transportation difficulties, correct legal names, emergency housing problems, low mental ability)—98

In the course of helping these 982 children and youth, 1009 direct services were rendered to pupils. These services included reinstatement in school, personal conferences, conferences with parents, suggested program changes, assistance in getting work permits, referral to Special Edu-

²⁷ Unpublished report. Courtesy of Arthur Cunningham, Director of Pupil Personnel Services.

cation Department, conferences with teachers, plans for medical care, arranging transfers to other schools, assistance in obtaining birth and vaccination certificates, and securing needed clothing. There were also 890 instances in which the visiting teacher rendered services to the students' parents and 604 instances in which services were rendered to other school departments and social agencies. During a subsequent year in which the number of visiting teachers had been increased, 286 referrals came from 8 different social agencies in the community and conferences were held with officials in 21 different social agencies, 178 cases having been referred to 14 different agencies. The referrals received from the social agencies were included in the total of 3437 cases handled that year. The year's activities included 6629 conferences with school personnel, 2409 of which were with classroom teachers. These data have been presented to show the school-focused but community-wide dispersion of the work of visiting teachers.

The manner in which the visiting teacher functions in a school system brings her into contact with many departments, types of professional workers, and out-of-school agencies. Staff relationships are therefore very important, and cooperation of a high type is essential if the work is to be effective. Since the most desirable practice is to assign a visiting teacher to a specific building or a few conveniently situated buildings, rather than on a city-wide basis, she will work most intimately with the principal and the classroom teachers of a designated area. The principal and the director of the visiting-teacher service generally supervise the work as it applies to the local school. To avoid delay and to keep the channels of communication clear, cases should be referred to the visiting teacher by the principal of the school. He, of course, will have had prior information about the case through his regular contacts with the teacher and the child. Teacher and principal, plus the child's cumulative folder and other school records, can give the visiting teacher much information about the case.

The visiting teacher will have constant need for the cooperation of various specialists and special departments. The psychologist, as a member of the child-study department or the bureau for research and measurement, may furnish data regarding the mental, emotional, or academic status of pupils referred to the visiting teacher. The close interrelationship between the many phases of child life suggests the many helpful ways in which the visiting teacher may use the information gathered by the health clinic and the supplementary facts obtained by school nurses. Frequently pertinent data may be obtained from outside organizations, such as health agencies, recreation centers, employment agencies, social welfare bureaus, and children's courts. As the visiting teacher may use to advantage the assistance from these various groups, so in turn these special departments and organizations may find the visiting teacher a source of enlightenment for some of their special problems.

Perhaps the most serious conflicts of authority and overlapping of functions occur between the work of visiting teachers and that of attendance officers. Some authorities believe that the main purpose of the visiting teacher is to do educationally constructive work, and that if she is to achieve her greatest usefulness her work must be positive and free from any connection with the exercise of authority.²⁸ It is feared if she became identified by teachers, parents, and pupils with a department whose major function has been so long connected with law enforcement, her approach would become a negative one, or at best, only ameliorative. The prospect of accomplishing her special mission would be enormously curtailed. Rochester, in the initial stages of visiting-teacher service, found it necessary to have some of its visiting teachers assume the burden of attendance service. This practice of dual responsibility proved undesirable and was abandoned in 1924.^{28a} The Michigan handbook of 1944 contains the following significant statement: ²⁹

There has been a significant change in the point of view as to the function of the attendance officer. In a great many instances the attendance officer no longer stresses that he represents the law and shakes the big stick at the parent or child. He, too, has made his function one of assisting parents and children to correct truancy. Nevertheless, the combination of attendance officer and visiting teacher functions is undesirable. The officer does represent the law even though he hides his badge and authority. In the final analysis in pursuance of his duties he does swear out a warrant when necessary, and that is as it should be. The visiting teacher should not represent the law. He must become the welcomed adviser of the child and his family—the person in whom the child and the parent will confide. Information given him must be inviolate. No court nor anyone else may force him to divulge without the child's or parent's consent, what he has learned from them in confidence. If the attendance officer finds home conditions which he considers should be referred, the visiting teacher should be eager to serve. If, vice versa, he finds that law enforcement is necessary, the teacher should step aside to permit such action.

Other authorities believe that attendance service, including the law enforcement aspect, should be handled by visiting teachers. The Virginia program previously mentioned places much emphasis upon the visiting teacher's work with pupils having attendance irregularities but the Virginia handbook is not explicit about the visiting teacher's role in law enforcement procedures. Some writers are confident that as attendance service reaches a higher plane and adopts more and more the standards and methods of social case-workers, the sharp demarcation of functions between the visiting teacher and the attendance officer will disappear.

²⁸ Culbert, *op. cit.*, p. 123.

^{28a} Ellis, *op. cit.*, p. 166.

²⁹ *A State Program for Visiting Teachers, op. cit.*, p. 19.

SPECIAL SCHOOLS FOR SOCIALLY MALADJUSTED

Closely allied to attendance and visiting teacher service is the maintenance of special schools and classes for wayward, truant, and incorrigible boys and girls. Special schools of this type fall into two groups, the day-schools and the residential schools. In 1948 each of the 48 states, the District of Columbia, the Territory of Hawaii, and Puerto Rico reported one or more public or private residential schools for delinquent children.³⁰ The total number of such schools was 167, and their total enrollment was 22,745. The report did not indicate how many of the 167 residential schools were state institutions for delinquents, how many were privately operated, and how many were sponsored by public school systems.³¹ It is generally known, however, that only a few of the very large city school systems operate residential schools. Invariably enrollment in a publicly supported residential school is through court action and usually entails some contact with school staff members who have had previous contact with the case. In recent years all residential schools for delinquent youth have placed much stress upon rehabilitating the individual and as a result the average length of stay in one of these schools has been reduced to approximately a year for most cases.³² The local school staff thus makes contact with the pupil again within a short time. In fact, a short period of attendance in a residential school may be viewed by the local school staff as but one of the resources at its disposal for working with very difficult cases.

Public school systems are more likely to operate day-schools or special classes for the socially maladjusted. In 1948, 90 city school systems in 25 states reported special schools or classes for truants or behavior problem cases. The total enrollment in these classes was 15,340 in that year. Children who are transferred temporarily for varying lengths of time to special day-schools or classes for the socially maladjusted continue to be under the auspices of school personnel and hence continue as active cases in the files of visiting teachers and attendance officers. The latter officials, together with school faculties and social agencies, work with the child and his family to remove or ameliorate the causes for the child's maladjustment so that the child's assignment to the special school or class may be

³⁰ Elise H. Martens, "Statistics of Special Schools and Classes for Exceptional Children," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1946-48* (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1950), Ch. 5, p. 11.

³¹ For details see *Directory of State, District of Columbia, County, and Municipal Training Schools Caring for Delinquent Children in the United States, 1940*. Copy available from Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.

³² Christine P. Ingram, Elise H. Martens, and Katherine M. Cook, *Education in Training Schools for Delinquent Youth*, Bulletin No. 5 (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1945), p. 2.

as brief as possible and the child restored to his usual environment in which there will not be a recurrence of the circumstances which caused the difficulty in the first place.

A few decades ago there was some controversy as to whether removal of the child from his neighborhood school or even from his home and placement in a special class or day-school or residential institution was a wise policy. The argument against removal from his native haunts was that upon his return he would have to make his adjustment in that environment anyhow, so the various agencies trying to help him might as well assist him in making that adjustment from the very beginning. The amount of progress which has been made in dealing with all types of maladjusted cases gives fairly good assurance that in the future removal from the neighborhood school or the home will be sought only as a last resort for children whose problems have defied solution by all other means. With this type of assurance in the background, school systems should move forward with confidence in such special provisions as needed locally to assure all maladjusted youth the best opportunities for full restoration to normal adjustment. In this realm in particular it must be remembered that an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure. Visiting-teacher service should pay its highest dividends in working with children having severe problems before the difficulty reaches the stage wherein the child's removal to a special class or school seems imminent.

PSYCHOLOGICAL AND PSYCHIATRIC SERVICE

The important part played by psychology in current educational procedures makes it imperative that all teachers and principals be well versed in this field. Every classroom teacher is confronted daily with instructional problems involving individual pupils and groups of pupils, with problems presented by exceptional children, with the need for surveying the talent and achievement of groups of pupils, and with problems associated with the classification, promotion, and management of individual students. Increasing recognition is being given to the fact that the classroom teacher and administrator must have the competence of a good generalist with reference to most of the problems arising in the usual school routine but that the classroom teacher cannot be expected to have the specialized training necessary to deal appropriately with the unusually complex types of cases or situations. The teacher and the principal should be capable of deciding when they need the assistance of specialists.

At one time the school more or less washed its hands of the non-conforming or atypical child. Such is no longer the case; the school endeavors to promote the wholesome all-round development of *every* child according to his individual potentialities. This involves much more exten-

sive and thorough-going case study work than has been customary. To assist teachers and principals with the more difficult aspects of child-study procedure as it relates to individuals and to groups, school systems and communities have found it advisable to augment the staff with specialists in psychology, psychiatry, and psychiatric social work.

The services of these types of specialists are available to staff members and pupils in a given school through one or the other or both of two customary arrangements. In some communities the services of specialists, particularly those of psychologists, are made available to schools by adding such persons to the school staff. In some cases psychologists were added to personnel of research bureaus; in others separate departments of child-study were organized. A more recent trend has been to integrate all of the service agencies within a given school system into a single department such as "attendance and pupil personnel," "pupil personnel and adjustment," or "attendance and pupil adjustment." Some school districts maintain a psychological clinic, whereas others operate an educational clinic, or both.³³ Where such distinction prevails, the educational clinic deals chiefly with specific difficulties of individual pupils in school subjects, whereas the psychological clinic usually specializes in the observation, diagnosis, and adjustment of defective or maladjusted pupils. It is easy to see how these two types of investigation might overlap in the case of certain pupils.

Hildreth obtained by questionnaire a tabulation of the functions of specialists in this field now at work in the schools of the country. She also analyzed the reports in professional literature of the actual and the theoretical functions of child guidance specialists and research bureaus in educational institutions and in public-school practice.³⁴ Her list should be helpful in studying a local situation.

The second method which some communities have used to provide specialized services for children's problems is the child guidance or mental hygiene clinic. As a rule the child guidance clinic is established in the community in such a way that it is independent of the schools in its organization, direction, and support; nevertheless it maintains extensive cooperative working relationships with schools. One reason for the close relationship which the independent clinics maintain with the schools rests in the fact that most of the child patients are school children, that the school necessarily becomes an active agent in any program for solving a child's problems, and that the clinics are eager to be of service to difficult problems encountered by teachers.

³³ The first psychological clinic was established at the University of Pennsylvania in 1896. C. M. Loutitt, *Clinical Psychology* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1936), p. 10.

³⁴ Gertrude Hildreth, *Psychological Service for School Problems* (Yonkers, N. Y., World Book Co., 1930), pp. 23-26.

Child guidance clinics as we know them today grew out of the early efforts in using the clinical approach with mental defectives and juvenile delinquents. The earliest beginnings were made prior to 1900, but the pioneer projects which provided the most significant impetus for the later development of child guidance clinics occurred between 1900 and 1920.³⁵ Sufficient vision and perspective had been gained from the earlier work so that a new concept of working with children had evolved. The new horizons were given tangible form and trial in 1922 when the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, with money provided by the Commonwealth Fund, established eight demonstration centers between 1922 and 1925. The term "child guidance clinic" was coined at that time and the demonstrations were located in St. Louis, Norfolk, Monmouth County (New Jersey), Dallas, Minneapolis-St. Paul, Los Angeles, Cleveland, and Philadelphia.³⁶

In the beginning child guidance clinics were associated with juvenile courts and gave most of their attention to delinquents. Their objective was to make a much-hoped-for reduction in juvenile delinquency and to help children showing undesirable behavior and personality traits to achieve such a quality of mental health that they would be saved from serious mental disorder in later life.³⁷ From the very beginning the clinics utilized what was then a new approach in dealing with children's problems, namely, the use of a team of specialists consisting of a psychiatrist, a psychologist, and a psychiatric social worker. The emphasis of the clinics throughout their history has been to deal with the child and his problems in the existing environment rather than to remove the child from his environment. This approach meant that the child, his parents, and sometimes other individuals or agencies in the community had to become active participants in planning and carrying out a program designed to correct whatever seemed to be at the root of the trouble. The children and their parents thus became potent forces in helping the clinics to evolve and fashion their methods. Allen pointed out that the role of the patients and parents in shaping the methods of child guidance clinics is too important ever to be forgotten.³⁸

As experience was gained in working with cases of delinquency it became evident that a broader outlook was necessary. Many children could probably be saved from delinquency if their problems were recognized and help given at an earlier time. Today child guidance clinics give most

³⁵ Helen L. Witner, *Psychiatric Clinics for Children* (New York, The Commonwealth Fund, 1940), Ch. 3.

³⁶ G. S. Stevenson, *Child Guidance Clinics* (New York, The Commonwealth Fund, 1934), Ch. 4.

³⁷ Milton E. Kirkpatrick, *The Organization and Function of the Child Guidance Clinic* (New York, The National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 1941).

³⁸ Frederick H. Allen, "Developments in Child Psychiatry in the United States," *American Journal of Public Health*, Vol. 38 (September, 1948), pp. 1201-1209.

of their time to children with serious problems who have not yet reached the delinquency stage. Most child guidance clinics today serve a three-fold function: (1) they study and treat patients; (2) they seek to interest other community agencies in the prevention of behavior and personality disorders in children and in promising methods of dealing with them when they do occur; and (3) they attempt to reveal to the community, through the first-hand study of individual children, the unmet needs of groups of children.

The philosophy of most child guidance clinics today is similar to that held by modern schools. The concept of mental health and social adjustment is viewed in the light of growth and maturity. The clinical syndromes encountered in childhood are not the same as those of adult psychiatry. Distinct technical skills are required in work with children. The child's method of expression differ from those of the adult. The child's behavior must be understood in terms of growth and development and in the way environmental factors influence children.³⁹

At present child guidance clinics are found primarily in large cities. It takes at least \$20,000 per year to support a clinic with a staff of one psychiatrist, one psychologist, one psychiatric social worker, and some clerical help. Even this amount of money does not provide full-time service of the professional staff. The typicalization with a "threefold staff" on half-time can serve a population of 2,000 and work with 300 to 400 new cases each year. In 1935 there were 617 child guidance clinics in the various states, the number ranging from 209 in New York to none in 14 states. Full-time threefold clinics accepting children existed only in cities of over 150,000 population and were infrequent in cities of less than 250,000 population. Financial support for 373 of the 617 clinics came from state governments. State-financed clinics tended to serve the smaller cities and towns while the privately-financed ones were confined chiefly to metropolitan centers.⁴⁰

The chief problem at present is to make the services of a clinical team available to schools, parents, and social agencies in small cities and rural areas. To meet this need Michigan experimented with a traveling clinic between 1937 and 1943. The Michigan legislature in 1937 appropriated funds which enabled the Michigan Child Guidance Institute to organize a "field unit" consisting of two social workers and a psychologist. Cases within each county were selected by a local filter committee, which also assumed responsibility for securing parental consent for the examination, securing the medical examination, securing a room for the psychologist's examination, and arranging transportation for the children. After five years of experimental and exploratory work with the "traveling unit" the

³⁹ J. Franklin Robinson, "Current Trends in Child Guidance Clinics," *Mental Hygiene*, Vol. 34 (January, 1950), pp. 106-116.

⁴⁰ Witner, *op. cit.*, Ch. 3.

Michigan Child Guidance Institute recommended to the legislature that the institute be abolished and that a permanent program for state-wide care and prevention be adopted.⁴¹

Schools in small cities and rural areas experience real difficulty in securing the help of child psychiatrists and psychologists. State-financed traveling clinics, although of some help, leave much to be desired. Invariably local resources are inadequate to establish even a part-time clinic. Yet schools in small communities have one or more serious cases each year which demand the help of specialists. Perhaps each local school board, or a group of school districts on a cooperative basis, could enter into an agreement whereby a psychiatrist in the nearest larger city could be engaged on a case basis so that teachers and parents would have accessible to them the assistance of the types of specialists usually found in a child guidance clinic. Appropriate administrative routines could be established whereby selected cases could be transported to the larger city for examination and periodic consultation.

HEALTH SERVICE

From meager beginnings in the form of medical inspection, the health services of a modern program for public education have increased in number and in type until they encompass nearly every phase of the physical well-being of school children and, in some cities, of children of pre-school age. Health service⁴² concerns itself with provisions for the discovery and correction of physical defects, the control and prevention of communicable diseases, the giving of periodic health examinations and follow-up to insure correction of defects, and provisions for the health of teachers.

In the operation of a well-ordered program for health it is not always easy to draw sharp distinctions between the activities which may definitely be classed as health service and those which are more closely allied to the other major phases of the broader program for health, namely, school hygiene, physical education, health instruction, special classes for the physically handicapped, and cooperation with the general health program of the community. The various staff members who are engaged to perform specialized services in the field of health service may also function with reference to other aspects of the health program. The school nurse, who visits schools and homes in cooperation with parents, principals, and teachers, inspects children who are suspected of contagious diseases, gives first-aid treatments, examines those who return to school after illness, supervises the periodic weighing and measuring of children, and assists

⁴¹ L. J. Carr, *To Control Delinquency in Michigan: A Program for Improving Treatment and Increasing Prevention* (Ann Arbor, Michigan Child Guidance Institute, 1943).

⁴² The broader program for health is discussed in a subsequent chapter.

the physician and dentist in making physical examinations, functions indirectly as a teacher of health while she goes about her duties with reference to health service. In a similar fashion the physician, the dentist, the dental hygienist, and the speech specialist may give significant health instructions while performing obligations more definitely classed as health services. Among the other members of a health staff are the psychologist, who serves as a specialist in a clinic or research bureau to examine individual children and to act as consultant regarding problem cases; the psychoanalyst, who serves as a specialist in the child guidance clinic and consults with teachers and parents regarding problem and behavior cases; the dietitian, who serves as a specialist in charge of the cafeteria and teaches nutrition and foods; and the supervisor of special classes, who directs and supervises the work in special classes for the handicapped and may supervise the schools at large to check and to correct unhygienic conditions.

Although these various specialists may function as members of a central department, their work is actually done in the local school units, and much of it is done with reference to individual children. The services of these highly trained specialists have been requested because they are equipped by training and experience to examine specialized phases of child life for the study of which teachers and administrative officers do not have the time or the technical training. It must be remembered that the responsibility for the pupil rests with the teacher and the individual school and that primarily these specialists are available to render assistance and types of services which will enable teachers and others responsible for instruction to give the best kind of educational guidance to the children in their classes.

Since the work of the specialists in the field of health service is definitely organized as a supplementary feature to help teachers and administrators carry out in a more effective manner the general program for public education, there devolves upon those in charge of local school units the responsibility for so organizing and coordinating the work of health service with the work of teachers that the maximum results may be obtained. It is now common practice to equip new school buildings with rather spacious and well-equipped quarters for health clinics in which doctors, dentists, nurses, mental hygienists, psychologists, and speech pathologists may operate. In too many instances, however, these specialists function in an independent manner, performing their respective duties without adequate consideration for the ways in which they may serve teachers and the school as a whole. Cooperation between the service specialists and the teachers is so limited in amount that the real service features of the health program are lost. Quantities of data which would be of inestimable value to classroom teachers, health teachers, special-class instructors, and teachers of physical education in vitalizing their work and in building their instruction around the needs of individuals and groups of pupils, are gathered and filed by

the service specialists and never reach the other staff members cooperating in the general health program.

Attention was called previously to the fact that it is sometimes difficult to draw sharp distinctions between health-service activities and the activities which are classified among the other aspects of the program for health. Perhaps the extent to which it is difficult to make these distinctions is an index of the degree to which health service has been organized as an integral and permeating feature of the entire program for health. Administrative machinery can be established so that the health-service activities may become an integral and contributing feature of each of the other phases of health education. For example, the eye specialist may contribute information which will assist the classroom teacher in the assignment of seats to pupils. The general school physician may furnish data which will be of value to the teacher of physical education in grouping pupils for exercises and in the selection of activities. Nearly every type of health service will supply facts which may become the basis for various kinds of lessons in personal and general health. Teachers in turn may be encouraged to cooperate with the health-service department. Teachers may be trained to observe the physical condition of the pupils and to recognize any signs of abnormality. Suspicious cases, whether physical, mental, or emotional, may be reported immediately to the health or psychological clinic, thus assisting the specialists in performing their duties more efficiently. Such interchange of cooperative endeavor can prevail only if principals sense their responsibilities and proceed to the establishment of administrative procedures whereby an integrated health program may be attained.

SOCIAL SERVICES

Among the social services carried on by the public school is direct aid to children in the form of food, clothing, medical care, minor surgical operations, free dental service, free eye-glasses, and other service ministering directly to the physical wants of children. It has long been recognized that the school cannot deal effectively with the intellectual aspects of the curriculum when the physical bodies of children are not in a healthy, vigorous state. A pamphlet issued some years ago by the N.E.A. points out that "a child who is undernourished is not alert to learn; a child who is hungry must have food before instruction; a child who is worried about his home cannot well give close attention to the affairs of the classroom."⁴³

Realization of the intimate relation between the physical status of children and their ability to do justice to school tasks may have been an essential factor in the development of a number of the forms of social

⁴³ *Childhood and the Depression: A Look Ahead* (Washington, N.E.A., November, 1931).

service which have been discussed in the preceding paragraphs. No doubt many aspects of health service, attendance and visiting-teacher service, and the maintenance of behavior centers may definitely be classed as social-welfare work. Welfare work is therefore not an entirely new concept in public education. In many cities where it has been feasible the children of destitute families have been served free milk and free lunches, have been given shoes and clothing and such medical care as seemed imperative. In a few centers the funds and supplies for such welfare work are furnished by the board of education, but in the majority of cases various teacher and community organizations cooperate with the schools in supplying the needed services and materials.

One's viewpoint regarding the school's responsibility in the field of social services must be formulated in terms of the changing nature of the social structure in this country. More than a century ago textbooks were recognized as sufficiently necessary to the educational effort that legislatures began to pass laws relating to the school's responsibility regarding the provision of textbooks. By 1937, 47 states and the District of Columbia had enacted legislation relating to this problem. In 27 states and the District of Columbia the provision of free textbooks to public school children is mandatory; in 20 additional states permissive legislation authorizes local school boards to provide free textbooks. In 1951, 6,410,013 pupils were transported to and from school each day at public expense, the amount exceeding 207,718,000 dollars. Since the early 1930's our federal government has contributed funds and surplus commodities toward the school-lunch program. Federal, state, and local funds are pooled in financing city and county health departments which render many health services to schools. The dividing line between what is legitimate expenditure of school district funds for clearly educational purposes and for supplementary social services which enable children to take advantage of and benefit from schooling is not clearly discernible. Likewise it is difficult to decide what types of services should come from agencies specifically created for rendering welfare services and what types of services should be paid for out of school budgets. During the 1930's, when much unemployment prevailed, the country as a whole moved in the direction of an extension of public services of all kinds. With reference to social services in American life the Educational Policies Commission made this statement: ⁴⁴

Possibly the future historian will record the extension and growth of the social services as the outstanding social phenomenon of this age. While there has been response to human needs by public, sectarian, philanthropic, and commercial agencies throughout a large part of history, the powers of government have been utilized increasingly in recent years to alleviate human suffering,

⁴⁴ *Social Services and the Schools*, Educational Policies Commission, N.E.A. and the American Association of School Administrators (1939), p. 1.

enrich lives and prevent individual and social maladjustment. Various churches have met and still meet the welfare needs of many of their members and other persons; philanthropic ventures still blaze new trails for public agencies to follow; commercial enterprises still have a share in meeting fundamental needs through services rendered for a price. Today, however, governments are assuming a leading role in the joint effort to improve the well-being of the people. Nor is this activity confined to any one level of government; local, state and federal authorities are all participating.

From the teacher's standpoint, it seems clear that the wholesome development of children is difficult if not impossible when children's physical wants are not satisfied. Administrative policy regarding the school's responsibility for children's welfare is still in a transition stage. Preston concluded his analysis of school laws with the following comment: ⁴⁵

Ample evidence available indicates that the public in general and legislators in particular are increasingly in accord with the provision of extended social welfare agencies under governmental auspices. The fact that such services are still, in many areas, so inadequate in nature is an indication that the planning of agencies of control and administration is as yet in a most incomplete stage. A definite trend toward centralization and coordination of control is evident. This trend has been discussed at some length in the previous chapter dealing with medical inspection and treatment.

In the field of social service the public school should adopt the same policy as in the field of medical treatment. It should by all means endeavor to conserve and to strengthen the influence and care and protection of the home and family. In case of parental ignorance and neglect, however, the school should have very definite means and authority for compelling, either through the means of existing welfare institutions or agencies or, in the absence of such institutions or agencies, through its own means, proper attention to and satisfaction of the social needs of the pupils, in order that education may be effective. This legal authority is based upon the premise that the welfare of the state, as well as that of the individual, demands constructive alleviation of social deterrents to effective education. If necessary, such authority should extend to emergencies as well as to ordinary situations. A policy of *laissez faire* does not properly facilitate constructive social planning and cooperation. The fundamental point at stake is that society as a whole should not suffer from the educational ineffectiveness caused by the ignorance, neglect, or misfortune of individuals.

In order that such a policy as that suggested above may be intelligently carried out, it is necessary that school officials understand the extent and significance of social welfare; that they become aware of cooperating social agencies; and that they endeavor to bring about a close relationship between the public schools and such agencies.

Approved policies of centralization of responsibility and unification of functions would indicate that the public school may best become the agency that is legally authorized to provide for the entire welfare of the pupil, from the instructional, medical, recreational, and social welfare point of view. Such a policy should be pursued, however, in a manner to conserve fully the necessary family and parental responsibility and authority.

⁴⁵ E. C. Preston, *Principles and Statutory Provisions Relating to Recreational, Medical, and Social Services of the Public Schools* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935), pp. 122-123.

The Educational Policies Commission took a somewhat different stand. Its recommendations which are pertinent here are: ⁴⁶

That a plan based on local circumstances, encompassing the relationships of existing and needed social services, be developed in each community.

That social service policies emphasize the importance of the home and family life through utilizing the home wherever possible as the basis for service.

That school boards become public education authorities with a viewpoint broad enough to encompass all public educational activities, both in and out of school.

That the school assume full responsibility for health instruction and health inventories of pupils.

That school authorities recognize a definite obligation to provide a hygienic school environment and regimen as well as health supervision of teachers and employees.

That medical diagnosis and treatment for school children, with certain emergency exceptions, be provided by agencies other than the public schools.

That the school expand its adjustment program through the development of a system of cumulative records and use of socially trained attendance workers, guidance, counsellors, and the child guidance clinic.

That the material wants of indigent school children be supplied by agencies other than the public schools.

That school authorities stimulate community action leading to the establishment of appropriate agencies for removing social, economic, or physical handicaps that affect the education of children.

That school authorities seek actively to coordinate educational services with social services rendered by other public and private agencies.

Even though welfare work may be an incidental phase of the school's services and may not be a part of the organized functions of public education, its existence places certain duties and responsibilities upon the principal and the teachers in certain buildings. Pupils in need of relief must be identified, the circumstances surrounding the case investigated, and administrative procedures inaugurated whereby the needy may be cared for. Usually quarters must be improvised and a staff provided so that the welfare work may be properly administered. Outside contacts must be made to secure funds, food, and clothing. School entertainments, paper and rummage sales, and other money-raising activities must be organized. All of these activities command the time and managerial ability of the principal and teachers.

GUIDANCE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

The term *guidance* has come into the literature on elementary education within the past 20 years. In the elementary school the concept of guidance has developed largely out of two sources. On the one hand, those concerned with guidance at the high-school and college levels were becoming increasingly aware of the fact that effective guidance at the secondary

⁴⁶ *Social Services and the Schools, op. cit.*, pp. x-xi.

level is conditioned to a large degree by the personnel and adjustment work done in the elementary schools. Guidance was conceived as a function applicable to the entire school system. The second source of the guidance interest in the elementary school is the increasing concern within the elementary school itself for meeting the needs of the whole child. The whole-child development movement has focused attention upon the importance of the nonintellectual aspects of the child's school life and the home and community influences upon the child's behavior and progress in school.

As elementary schools became genuinely concerned with children's health problems, their total adjustment in home and school, and the need for broad diagnoses if the learning problems of all children were to be met, it became clear that the effort of classroom teachers needed to be augmented by the help of various specialists. Expansion of visiting teacher, psychological, psychiatric, and social services took place during about the same period that the "whole child" concept began to take hold in the schools. Since the basic organization of the elementary school was that of the single-teacher-per-grade, and since recognition of a given child's problem must permeate the whole instructional program as well as other aspects of the child's life at school, it was only logical that the role of the classroom teacher should be retained as paramount in meeting children's needs. The specialists were to assist the teacher rather than to have guidance and adjustment duties that would supplement the contributions of classroom teachers, as was common in secondary-school guidance programs. The early beginnings in which the specialists rendered technical services and information to the elementary-school classroom teacher are revealed in Macfarlane's description of a 10-year child guidance program conducted by the Institute of Child Welfare at the University of California,⁴⁷ in Munson's account of the adjustment service carried on through the Bureau of Child Study of the Chicago Public Schools,⁴⁸ in the description of four community programs in the 1940 Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A.,⁴⁹ and in the 1938 Yearbook of the California Elementary Principals' Association.⁵⁰ The early viewpoint regarding guidance in the elementary school, the role of the classroom teacher, and the role of the specialist is well presented in the following statement by Kawin:⁵¹

⁴⁷ Jean Walker Macfarlane, "Some Findings from a Ten-Year Guidance Research Program," *Progressive Education*, Vol. 15 (November, 1938), pp. 529-535.

⁴⁸ Grace E. Munson, "Adjustment Service—Chicago Schools," *Educational Method*, Vol. 19 (March, 1940), pp. 327-335.

⁴⁹ Department of Elementary School Principals, *Meeting Special Needs of the Individual Child*, Nineteenth Yearbook (Washington, N.E.A., 1940).

⁵⁰ *Guidance in the Elementary School* (California Elementary Principals' Association, 1938).

⁵¹ Ethel Kawin, "The Guidance Program in a Suburban Community of the Middle-west," from Department of Elementary School Principals, *Meeting Special Needs of the Individual Child*, *op. cit.*, pp. 305-306.

Probably the most crucial field of guidance for the majority of American children lies in the elementary school. This has been little recognized in the past, so that guidance as an organized movement has developed first at the secondary and college levels. There is, however, a rapidly growing recognition of the fact that successful guidance at the secondary-school level must be superimposed upon more fundamental guidance or adjustment programs which reach children in their earlier and more formative years. There is also a recognition that the greatest number of children can be reached during the so-called primary years, since more of them are attending school at that level than in either preschool or later periods. Furthermore, preventive adjustment measures taken during these early years of childhood constitute guidance of a more significant type than do attempts to remedy serious problem situations which have been allowed to develop. Thus it is becoming evident that the logical place to begin organized guidance is the point at which the child enters school—for most children the kindergarten-primary level. The results of research studies indicate that individual differences in the development and "readiness" of children at first-grade entrance are sufficient to require individualization of the school program and to provide a basis for an organized, cumulative guidance program.

While elementary schools have perhaps progressed further than secondary schools in recognizing and studying individual differences and in meeting the needs of individual children in the classroom, definitely organized programs of guidance at the elementary-school level are still rare. The programs which have been established represent promising beginnings. They have avoided, for the most part, a mistake which weakened many of the early guidance programs at the high-school level, namely, a tendency to establish guidance as a highly specialized and separate department with only a slight relationship to the general school program and activities. Guidance as it is developing in progressive elementary schools is regarded an integral part of the whole educational program. Workers especially trained for guidance are available as resource specialists, but the classroom teacher is recognized as the key person in the program. Educators are realizing that the mental hygiene of the school will be as good or as bad as the mental health of its teachers, and that only a well-adjusted teacher can help pupils to develop well-adjusted personalities. The specific function of the guidance program is *the satisfactory mutual adjustment of the school and the individual child*. While specialists have an important contribution to make to this process, its success rests ultimately upon the shoulders of each individual classroom teacher.

During the time that has intervened since the guidance idea began to appear in the literature on elementary education in the late 1930's most writers on the subject have adhered to the original concept which recognized the classroom teacher as the strategic person in studying and knowing each child as an individual and making all possible efforts to meet his various needs; the specialist is recognized as a service aide to the teacher. These viewpoints were emphasized by Strang,⁵² Baxter,⁵³ Berger,⁵⁴ and

⁵² Ruth M. Strang, "Guidance in the Elementary School," *Education*, Vol. 70 (April, 1950), pp. 492-494.

⁵³ Edna D. Baxter, "What Is Guidance?" *Childhood Education*, Vol. 25 (January, 1949), pp. 202-205.

⁵⁴ Donald W. Berger, "Guidance in the Elementary School," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 49 (October, 1947), pp. 44-50.

the *Guidance Handbook for Elementary Schools* developed by the office of the Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools.⁵⁵

The most widely accepted concept of guidance in the elementary school appears to make it synonymous with the child development viewpoint in curriculum and school management, and with the child study movement which has endeavored to sensitize teachers to all phases of children's growth and development and to help teachers to become more competent in studying and understanding children and in doing something constructive about helping children meet their developmental needs and problems. Specialists in health, psychology, psychiatry, and social work are called upon to help the teacher get a comprehensive picture of the child and his problems whenever the teacher's own resources require supplementation. In other words, the best in modern teaching is what is meant by guidance in the elementary school. Willey appears to have taken this position when he says, "Most issues in guidance at the elementary-school level are obviated when we assume that good guidance is just good teaching," . . . "One will also observe the synonymy of the two terms, i.e., guidance and teaching," . . . and, "Guidance in the elementary school requires an organismic growth concept, that is, a consideration of the 'whole child,' where any one phase of growth becomes an integral part of the organism's development."⁵⁶

Some writers differ from Willey in their interpretation of the meaning and nature of guidance in the elementary school. Detjen and Detjen outline a series of group lessons which a teacher may use in helping her pupils with problems of emotional and social adjustment.⁵⁷ Twenty lessons are proposed. Samples of the topics for these lessons are "Studying the Home Environment of Pupils," "Handling Angry Feelings," "Dealing with Bullies," "Overcoming Fears," and "Cultivating Good Manners." The authors recommend that the teacher set aside a specific time each day or each week for these lessons. They say that it is advisable that some lessons be carried on by all classes throughout the school at the same time. Another viewpoint is presented by Cain who recommended that one teacher do counseling one-half of the teaching day in elementary schools with 500 or fewer pupils in average daily attendance.⁵⁸ The latter proposal is comparable to the plan used in high schools in which counselors are appointed on the basis of size of enrollment.

Apparently the elementary school of the future will be faced with important decisions regarding *guidance*. If guidance is synonymous with

⁵⁵ Office of Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools, *Guidance Handbook for Elementary Schools* (Los Angeles, California Test Bureau, 1948).

⁵⁶ Roy DeVerl Willey, *Guidance in Elementary Education* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1952), Ch. 1.

⁵⁷ Ervin W. Detjen and Mary F. Detjen, *Elementary School Guidance* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1952).

⁵⁸ Edgar V. Cain, "Practical Guidance Techniques for the Elementary School," *Sierra Education News*, Vol. 43 (October, 1947), pp. 22-23.

good modern teaching, why confuse the issue by introducing a new term when there is no new concept to be added to the thinking in elementary education? If guidance consists of pupil personnel services rendered by specialists to assist classroom teachers with their tasks, why call it guidance? Why not adhere to the names for the services and specialists which are familiar to everyone and whose contributions have already found a place in the teacher's repertoire of resources? If guidance means group lessons in mental hygiene, human relations, and character education, why not remodel the school's curriculum in social, citizenship, and character education so that a realistic and functional instructional program may be obtained instead of adding another isolated subject to cut the school day into an increased number of small bits? Does the general pattern of the child's mental organization of an elementary school accommodate co-development? The results of the addition of a faculty member called "a counselor" who by his presence in the school would have to be somewhat of a generalist? Would the employment of such a person prevent the school from finding funds to employ genuine specialists in health, psychology, psychiatry, and social progress? If "a counselor" were employed, what, specifically, would such a person do? Would he become the recipient of all the cases of misbehavior? These, plus a variety of other issues, should be considered carefully before school systems launch forward with elaborate *guidance* programs for the elementary schools.

In general, it may be said that in most elementary schools today guidance has not emerged as a separate concept. In most schools that have become guidance conscious the idea of guidance is considered an integral part of the instructional process. Where organized efforts are under way to effect guidance work in elementary schools, the viewpoints and procedures encompass child-study activities, diagnosis of individual pupil needs, remedial teaching, adaptation of instruction to individual differences, and such special adjustments as may be needed to insure wholesome personality, social, and emotional development. The classroom teacher carries the major responsibility for effecting whatever adjustments should be made for the individual child. The majority of the adaptations are made through the regular instructional program, including the opportunities in co-curricular activities. Essentially the guidance work is an effort to make available to the classroom teacher the services of specialists on the school staff and to assist the teacher in making intelligent use of the data provided by the service departments. The general plan of the guidance program is to assist teachers and principals in putting into operation a good program of child growth and development. The guidance program represents an effort to develop to a truly functional level the viewpoints and procedures encompassed by the various persons and agencies rendering pupil personnel and adjustment services. There is some question as to whether the development of an integrated pupil personnel and adjustment service may be jeopardized by introducing a term

which has acquired rather definite meaning in secondary education. A review of the literature indicates that leaders in the guidance movement in the elementary school are eager that the term *guidance* shall have a *different* meaning in the elementary school than it has in the secondary field. If such a careful distinction must always be made, why not confine the concept of guidance to secondary schools and use already familiar terminology in elementary schools?

COMMUNITY COORDINATING COUNCILS

Social evolution in this country during the past two decades has made it increasingly evident that the needs of individuals cannot be met satisfactorily unless there is coordination of effort among the agencies endeavoring to give aid and to develop preventive programs. In each community there are many private and public agencies which concern themselves with the welfare of individuals and families. Usually each agency has selected its own field of activity, the kinds of cases it will aid, and the types of aid it will give. As a rule there is much overlapping among the agencies. The community coordinating council has been developed as a mechanism for eliminating overlapping of effort, spotting and filling in blind spots in a community's program, and obtaining consolidation of community effort.

Usually the aims of a community coordinating council are (1) to coordinate, on a voluntary basis, the activities of all agencies interested in child welfare and the prevention of juvenile delinquency. (2) to provide an organization whereby the combined resources and experience of all local child welfare agencies will be made available to any given agency responsible for the disposition or treatment of a particular case, (3) to promote the interest of the citizens in the moral, spiritual, and physical welfare of young and old in the community, and (4) to awaken the community to its responsibility for the prevention of juvenile delinquency.

Since each community is likely to have private and public, school and non-school agencies interested in the welfare of individuals and families, and since the majority of agencies are interested in aiding children, it becomes highly important that each community have some method for coordinating its social services, that the schools be represented in the coordinating council, and that teachers and principals have extensive knowledge of the kinds of services for children rendered by the various agencies and the ways in which the school can use the services of each agency.

PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES AND THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

The various service agencies which have been discussed are comparatively recent phases of the program for public education in that nearly all of them have developed as aspects of educational practice during the present century. As public education developed alongside of rather far-reaching changes in the industrial, social, political, and scientific phases of modern civilization, education itself experienced many fundamental changes. The program for public education assumed new proportions and types of services theretofore left to private individuals or other public bodies. The work of the schools became centered upon the all-round development of the "whole" child. The teaching act itself could no longer be content with purely academic tasks. All phases of child-life became the concern of the teacher. Educational practice became more technical and more scientific. In fact, many phases of the complete educational program became so technical and time-consuming that the classroom teacher could hardly be expected to perform all of them. To understand thoroughly and to minister adequately to the groups of pupils assigned to her, the classroom teacher had need for types of technical information for the obtainment of which she had neither the time nor the training. Hence it was deemed desirable to add to the school staff various specialists, organized into the different service agencies or departments, to render highly specialized types of services which seemed essential to an effective modern program of public education.

Although the history of any one of the service agencies may not reveal clearly the above motives and general trends, yet it is apparent that in their present status they bear that relationship to the instructional program. The purpose of these departments is primarily to render service of a type similar to that rendered by special supervisors of arithmetic, art, or social studies. The teacher calls on these specialists for expert assistance in finding out what to do and how to proceed. In all instances, even when transfers are made to special classes, the responsibility for the case rests with the teacher and the school. It is for this reason that administrative officers, especially principals, must understand fully the relationships which service agencies bear to the work of the school and must assume active leadership in coordinating the work of these specialists with the work of teachers. Administrative machinery must be established so that the facts gathered by experts may be accessible to teachers in the solution of their problems, and teachers in turn must be trained to use these specialized data and to cooperate with the service agencies.

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- YEAGER, William A., *Administration and the Pupil* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1949), Parts II and V and Ch. 27.

THE NEED FOR good library service in a modern elementary school is no longer an issue for debate. All thinking people who are informed about the purposes of education, the nature of the learning process, and the curriculum and instructional procedures in today's elementary schools are agreed on the important contribution which library service makes to the character and quality of the educational program. Schools that have good library service usually have better instructional programs than those without library service. Schools without at least a respectable amount of library service usually have narrow and somewhat barren curricula. In a sense, the nature and scope of library service is an index to the character and quality of the curriculum and instruction.

A brief historical sketch of the development of library service in elementary schools was given in Chapter 1. The present status of library work in elementary schools is difficult to ascertain. In 1948 the U. S. Office of Education sent an inquiry on school libraries to the superintendents of 8097 school administrative units in the United States. Usable replies were received from only 1037 of them. Many of those who did reply said that their elementary schools had no library service or that their own records did not provide the kinds of data requested. There is no way of knowing whether the 7060 who did not reply had no libraries or merely lacked the essential information about their libraries. Perhaps the former cause was operative in the majority of cases. At any rate it seems safe to conclude that country-wide elementary schools have a long way to go before it can be said that adequate library service is the rule rather than the exception. In the administrative units represented by the 1037 replies to the 1948 inquiry, the percentage of elementary schools served by centralized libraries ranged from 15.1 in the counties to 40.5 in cities with 2500 to 9999 population (Table 29). Even in the largest cities in the United States less than half of the elementary schools had centralized libraries.¹ The problem is even more acute in rural areas since public library service

¹ Nora E. Beust and others, "Statistics of Public-School Libraries, 1947-48," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1946-48* (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1950), Ch. 8.

is usually also nonexistent. The latest nation-wide data are for 1938, but at that time there were 6000 public libraries in the United States. Approximately 34 per cent of the nation's population was without any form of library service. Of those not served, 91 per cent were rural and 9 per cent were urban folks.²

TABLE 29: Elementary-School Library Statistics, 1947-1948 *

GROUP	TOTAL NUMBER IN EACH GROUP, 1940 CENSUS	NUMBER IN EACH GROUP SUBMITTING USABLE REPORTS	PER CENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS SERVED BY CENTRALIZED LIBRARIES
Group I cities (100,000 population and more)	89	75	45.1
Group II cities (30,000 to 99,999 population)	254	146	38.7
Group III cities (10,000 to 29,999 population)	742	402	31.8
Group IV cities (2,500 to 9,999 population)	2,119	307	40.5
Independent school districts	1,451	0	—
Counties	3,442	107	15.1
Total	8,097	1,037	—

* Adapted from Nora E. Beust and others, "Statistics of Public-School Libraries, 1947-48," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1946-48* (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1950), Ch. 8.

THE CENTRAL LIBRARY AND THE CLASSROOM COLLECTION

In some circles there is still a controversy as to whether a centralized library or separate collections in each classroom is the best plan. In schools without a central library practically every teacher gradually gathers a few books which form the nucleus of a classroom collection. Some school systems make a beginning in strengthening their library resources by providing each teacher with a small annual appropriation for purchasing new books for her room. No doubt such a plan has merit as a way to begin; small beginnings then develop into more adequate service.

Separate permanent classroom collections have several limitations when viewed from the standpoint of library needs in a modern school program. Teachers who have struggled hard and long to get even a small classroom collection tend to become very possessive about their individual collections. They hesitate to loan them to neighboring classes for fear the books will get lost or torn. They hesitate to give up their own collections when

² H. L. Cecil and W. A. Heaps, *School Library Service in the United States* (New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1940), p. 142.

the idea of a central library is discussed. The very fact that teachers manifest this personal interest in their room collections is good evidence that they recognize the value of these supplementary resources, and, if a wider collection were made available through a central library, they would undoubtedly be the first ones to use the central library extensively. Where teachers oppose the establishment of a central library because they are reluctant to give up their room collections, some schools have used the strategy of assuring teachers that they could keep their room collections as long as they wished; the central library would merely provide additional materials which they could borrow to augment their room collections.

Schools with room collections only are short-changing themselves and the children in several ways. Usually a book that is of interest to children is read by all in the room before the school year is half over. Thereafter the book remains idle on the shelf while other children in the school are denied access to it. The school's investment is going to waste and other children's education is curtailed. After the pupils in a given room have read all the books in the classroom collection, they have no new materials to which to turn. If the school has several sections of the same grade, the same titles are likely to be duplicated in each of these rooms. The money used to buy two or more copies of the same title could have been used to buy one copy of each of several titles, thus doubling or tripling the number of different books available to the same children. Usually permanent classroom collections must, of necessity, be rather small; hence they are meager in range of interest and in levels of difficulty of the reading content. As a result, the various needs and interests of children are met to only a limited degree. A permanent classroom collection is seldom adequate to provide the array of reference material required for a rich instructional program in social studies or science.

The present attitude of librarians and other educational leaders is that there is no point in continuing the controversy as to whether a central library or classroom libraries is the best plan; *both are essential parts of a comprehensive plan for library service in an elementary school*. Each classroom should be provided with a reading table and at least one book-case large enough to accommodate from 50 to 100 books. The classroom collection should be *a changing collection* rather than a permanent collection. The teacher should take the initiative and, with the help of the pupils and the librarian, change the collection or any part of it as the children have finished reading the books and as the units in social studies and science shift from one topic to another. The temporary classroom collection should serve as a ready-at-hand reservoir which feeds breadth of content into the instructional program in the classroom, provides recreational reading for pupils during spare moments, and equips the teacher with materials of different levels of difficulty to suit many and varied pupil interests. The central library is the big reservoir and the service agency

which helps classroom teachers in maintaining classroom collections that are continuously adjusted to the evolving instructional program in each classroom in the school. The central library and temporary, changing classroom collections operate as partners in providing comprehensive library service in the school.

THE ROLE OF THE CENTRAL LIBRARY WITHIN THE SCHOOL

One's approach to the organization of library service in a school hinges primarily upon whether one views the central library as a teaching center (or teaching agent) or as a service agency. Those who consider the library as a teaching agency will assign the librarian the major responsibility for instructing children in the use of books and libraries, developing in children strong motives for and permanent interests in reading, guiding individual children in the selection of reading materials, story-telling and reading to pupils in order to develop appreciation for literature, and promoting in children the habit of using reading as a wholesome way of engaging one's leisure time. If the librarian is to discharge these several teaching functions, she must have the children enough periods per week to make such outcomes attainable. Consequently every class is regularly scheduled to spend a given number of periods per week in the library. The librarian is busy nearly every period in the day with classes occupying the library. In some platoon or otherwise departmentalized schools the librarian is the "reading teacher," at least in the intermediate grades, and the reading classes meet regularly in the library. The library is thus equivalent to a special classroom, like a special music or art room, and the librarian has a "teaching program" for which she is responsible. Other teachers in the building must cooperate by sending their classes to the library on schedule and in other ways plan their work in accordance with the librarian's part in the total curricular offering of the school. The librarian is virtually one of the classroom teachers, the major difference being that the librarian has a special laboratory in which she works with children. Perhaps this is how the library came to be called "the reading laboratory."

Viewing the library primarily as a teaching center poses certain issues which those responsible for the operation of elementary school programs should consider thoughtfully. If reading classes are taught in the library or for other reasons class groups occupy the library nearly every period in the day, the librarian is practically forced to discourage classroom teachers from securing temporary loans for classroom collections; the librarian must have the books on the shelves in the library if she is to have materials available for the classes that come to her each period in the day. Generous temporary classroom collections are difficult to maintain if the books are needed daily in the library. Consequently the library collection serves the

librarian's program but does little to foster and strengthen the programs of classroom teachers. Under such an arrangement the library actually does not serve as a vehicle for enriching the whole curriculum.

The librarian's need for retaining most of the books in the library creates still other difficulties. The instructional program sponsored by classroom teachers must be structured so that few demands are made upon the supplementary resources contained in the library. Hence, instruction in other divisions of the curriculum tends to be geared to such limited amount of reading as can be found in basal texts. Students, therefore, are not motivated to use library resources, and the librarian's efforts at teaching pupils how to use the library take place in an unmotivated environment in which pupils have no need to use the library.

It is doubtful whether a librarian can succeed in establishing in pupils strong motives for and permanent interests in reading through the avenues and resources at her command during the periods when the children come to the library. In the majority of cases the children will not have the motivations arising out of dynamic units in progress in their respective regular classrooms. The librarian is thus forced to create other motivations or to initiate units of her own which can generate real pupil desire for wider reading. Unless pupil interests can be aroused in connection with problems of everyday living or topics normally arising in the various curriculum areas, the reading that is motivated by the librarian is likely to be overloaded with fiction.

Reading is being used more and more by intermediate and upper grade teachers as a method of fostering and guiding children's development in a variety of ways. The child with fears, an inferiority complex, over-aggressiveness, without friends, or in conflict with his parents can be helped to see his problem more objectively or to realize that he has worried unduly about a problem that was largely imaginary. Such guidance through reading can be done wisely only if the teacher knows the pupil and his problems and developmental needs well enough so that child and problem and book can be matched properly. Classroom teachers rather than the librarian are most likely to know the children that well. If the librarian deals with 8 or 10 classes each day she could hardly be expected to know every child well enough to guide his reading for the purposes previously identified. It is doubtful, therefore, whether a librarian should be held responsible for "guiding pupils in the selection of reading materials" unless it is done under the guidance of the child's classroom teacher.

In sharp contrast with the view that the central library should be a teaching center is the concept that the library is primarily a service agency, i.e., a service department whose major function is *to assist classroom teachers in implementing their instructional programs with their pupils.* The school operates under the thesis that classroom teachers are respon-

sible for the instructional program, that classroom teachers are the ones who should develop dynamic learning activities with their classes, and that it is they who should be responsible for the educational guidance of the pupils as individuals and as groups. The school makes a variety of services available to the teachers to assist *them* in *their* work with children; pupil personnel and library services are in that category.

When the library is viewed as a service agency its chief functions will be (1) to provide a well-rounded collection of reading materials, films, slides, pictures, bulletins, and recordings suitable for use by children of the age range served by the school and (2) to service every classroom and every teacher's instructional program as generously as possible so that each class group may have the maximum amount and variety of learning materials. The emphasis is placed upon helping classroom teachers develop broad, rich, dynamic programs with children and the library becomes the reservoir of resources upon which teachers may draw. One of the librarian's chief functions is to serve as a liaison on instructional materials between the resources of the library and the evolving programs in classrooms. The librarian should take the initiative in keeping in touch with the evolving instructional program in each classroom and then see to it that all of the library's pertinent materials are made available to the classroom. Historically, librarians have complained bitterly that classroom teachers are unfamiliar with, and make little effort to become familiar with, the excellent materials which the library has. Hence, the materials have gone unused. Perhaps it is time that we recognize that classroom teachers have such extensive responsibilities that there simply is not enough time and energy to also keep up with the resources of the library. Instead of expecting teachers to keep up with what the library has to offer, why not expect the librarian to see to it that all materials pertinent to a unit in social studies, science, arithmetic or some other activity are brought to the attention of and made available to the teacher?

If the library's main function is to service instructional programs in classrooms, each classroom can be supplied as frequently as necessary with temporary loan collections of the books which will be in greatest demand by the majority of pupils while a particular unit or activity is in progress. Pictures, bulletins, slides, films, and recordings can be loaned to the classroom for shorter periods of time. These several types of resources will enable the teacher to develop with children the kind of teaching that modern schools desire. The class as a group will not have regularly scheduled periods in the library each week; instead, the whole class will go to the library as the need arises for finding information not available in the classroom collection. Individual pupils and small committees will go to the library whenever their special assignments call for supplementary materials and information. The responsibility for promoting the various objectives in reading, instruction in the use of books and the library, and

the guidance of individual children's reading will rest with the classroom teacher, but the teacher will make many demands upon the librarian for assistance in these matters. There is no thought of implying that the librarian will have no role in these instructional affairs; it is merely a question of who carries the responsibility and who serves as the assistant. If the school desires well-integrated guidance of children's learning, the responsibility for coordination must reside with the teacher in the classroom; specialists on the faculty serve as assistants to the teacher.

In the preceding paragraphs a sharp contrast was drawn between two theories about the role of the central library: namely, the library as a teaching center and the library as a service agency. This contrast was made deliberately in order to make each theory as vivid as possible, and to identify the essential differences between them. No doubt this sharp contrast caused each theory to be treated in somewhat extreme form. It is likely that the best role of the central library incorporates the best features of each theory. Much of the reading guidance and instruction in the use of the library may be given by the librarian as children come to the library individually in search of materials or books for recreational reading. "Occasional" scheduled periods for a whole class need not occur frequently enough to "freeze" either the library or the librarian. The book collection should be large enough to serve classrooms with adequate temporary collections and still leave enough volumes on the library shelves to enable the library to discharge its other functions. Close liaison between librarian and teachers will enable the librarian to give each teacher much assistance in the selection of books to meet the individual reading needs of pupils.

A centralized library which functions appropriately as a service agency must meet certain requirements in room size and arrangement, equipment, the basic collection of books, pamphlets, visual aids, and recordings, financial support, and the qualifications of the librarian. The library must operate in accordance with procedures appropriate to a service unit; these include internal organization, use of pupil helpers, instruction in the use of the library, fines, book selection procedures, classroom-use policy, and home-use policy. The library must also relate itself wisely and fruitfully to local system-wide supervision, state and national groups and agencies. The remainder of this chapter is devoted to a discussion of these topics.

THE LIBRARY QUARTERS

Each school will have to find its own best solution in providing the closest approximation to ideal quarters for the library. Since most of the older elementary schools do not contain quarters specially designed for a library, an existing classroom or two adjoining classrooms must be converted into a library. As new buildings are being designed, the library

quarters can be planned in accordance with the best modern recommendations.³ Usually these recommendations specify the same standards for heating, ventilation, and lighting as are now used for all classrooms. In so far as possible the library should be located in the center of the building so that it will be equally accessible to all classrooms. The library quarters should consist of a reading room, one or more adjoining conference rooms at least 10 by 10 feet in dimensions for use by student committees working on special projects, a workroom at least 10 by 12 feet equipped with a sink and running water, shelves, storage cabinets, and a work-counter, an office or a place for the librarian's desk, and a small room in which teachers can preview visual and auditory aids. If the school has a separate visual-aids projection room, it should be located as near the library as possible.

The reading room should be large enough to seat the largest class in the school plus about 20 pupils, allowing 25 square feet of floor space per reader. The room should be planned so that it will allow the maximum amount of wall area for shelving. If the wall area provides an inadequate amount of shelving, separate tiers of shelving can be placed in the most convenient space. Shelves in elementary schools should not exceed six feet in height, preferably not over five feet high. There should be some special shelving for picture books which are usually oversized and odd-shaped. Tables and chairs of appropriate height for elementary-school pupils constitute the best furniture. Since children age 5 or 6 to age 13 or over will be using the library, it is better to choose furniture that will fit fourth-grade or fifth-grade pupils; older and younger pupils can use it for short periods of time without too much discomfort.

The equipment in the library should include a charging desk, a dictionary stand, catalog case, magazine rack, one or two book trucks, bulletin boards, enough book ends to keep the books neatly arranged on the shelves, several legal size steel filing cases, several letter-size steel filing cases, cabinets or steel filing cases for film strips, phonograph records and other recordings, a poster bin, an exhibit window, and a space especially designed for storing maps and charts not permanently placed in classrooms. These various items of equipment are in addition to the assortment of consumable library supplies which every library requires.

THE LIBRARY AS A MATERIALS CENTER

The library should be a virtual reservoir of all types of materials needed by the school in fostering a lush educational program with the children. This viewpoint has become so strong that in some schools they have dis-

³ Mary Peacock Douglas, *The Teacher-Librarian's Handbook*, 2d ed. (Chicago, American Library Association, 1949), Ch. 9; Mary Peacock Douglas, chairman, *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow* (Chicago, American Library Association, 1945), Ch. 5.

continued calling this unit a library; instead, they call it a "materials center." As a reservoir of resources for teaching, the library should contain as generous an assortment as possible of books, children's magazines, and audio-visual aids.

Usually the book collection is the first item to which most schools turn their attention. The American Library Association has made the following recommendation regarding the book collection for elementary-school libraries: ⁴

SCHOOL ENROLLMENT	NUMBER OF TITLES	NUMBER OF VOLUMES
200 or less	1,700	2,000
500	3,500	5,000
1,000	5,000	7,000
3,000	7,000	12,000
5,000	8,000	15,000

The figures just cited are more generous in number of titles for smaller schools than previously published minima found in bulletins of state departments of education. For small rural schools the latter quotas used to run as low as 250 to 500 titles for one-teacher and two-teacher schools. Theoretically a small school should own or have access to as wide a range of titles as a large school. The range of individual pupil needs and the breadth of the curriculum do not depend upon size of school. If small schools have clearly circumscribed and curtailed library resources, there results a corresponding inequality in educational opportunity. Those who have recommended smaller book collections for small schools have done so as a practical adjustment to the more limited financial resources of small schools. Although this is a noble recognition of reality, it is not the wisest approach to the problem. Instead of being satisfied with the meager library resources which the local district can afford, small schools should strive to affiliate themselves with larger library service units so that the small school may have access to as diversified a collection of books as the large school. In rural areas, county libraries or service purchased from a nearby city public or school library are devices now used successfully in many places as one method of equalizing educational opportunity for children in small schools. In city school systems each small elementary school should own or have access to the same breadth of library resources as the large school.

Variety of titles and total number of volumes are not the only criteria by which one judges the adequacy of the book collection. Recency of publication is important for books in the content fields. A book collection which consists largely of out-of-date textbooks and volumes discarded by parents who cleaned closets or attics has little merit. Douglas recommended the following distribution of the books in an elementary-school library: ⁵

⁴ Douglas, *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*, op. cit., p. 21.

⁵ Douglas, *The Teacher-Librarian's Handbook*, op. cit., pp. 89-90.

DEWEY DECIMAL NUMBER	SUBJECT	PERCENTAGE OF COLLECTION
000-099	General reference	2.0
100-199	Philosophy	.5
200-299	Religion	1.0
300-399	Social sciences	5.0
400-499	Languages	.5
500-599	Science	8.0
600-699	Useful arts	5.0
700-799	Fine arts	3.0
800-899	Literature	5.0
910-919	Geography and travel	12.5
900-909, 920-999	History and biography	12.5
F and 398	Fiction and fairy tales	20.0
E	Easy books for Grades 1-3	25.0

Magazines for children are usually conspicuous by their absence in elementary schools. Most schools have had such restricted budgets for the purchase of library materials that their first concern has been for books. Even those with small budgets should include a few subscriptions for magazines. As children's interest in magazines expands, other titles should be added. Douglas listed the following magazines as suitable for elementary schools:⁶

American Girl	Children's Activities
Boys' Life	Children's Playmate
Child Life	Collin's Magazine
Current Events	Our Dumb Animals
Flying	Popular Mechanics
Jack and Jill	Popular Science Monthly
Junior Natural History	Radio News
Junior Red Cross Journal	School Arts Magazine
Junior Scholastic	Story Parade
My Weekly Reader	Uncle Ray's Magazine
National Geographic Magazine	Wee Wisdom
Nature Magazine	Young America
Open Road for Boys	Children's Digest

Audio-visual aids constitute the third type of resource material which the library should have. If the school owns motion picture films, the library should serve as the custodian and distributing center for films. In some schools, projectors of various kinds are placed in the library and borrowed from there in the same way as books and films. When the school does not own films the librarian may be asked to keep abreast of films available for loan at the different loan centers accessible to the school, to apprise teachers of available films suitable for use with various units, and to serve as the procuring agent for the school.

Nearly every school is able to own a few filmstrips, some slides, and some records. Each of these types of resources should be expanded as

⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 99-100.

rapidly as funds permit, concentrating on audio-visual materials that are used frequently and regularly in the school program. The case housing the card catalog should be large enough to hold an extra drawer or two so that there may be a separate subject and author index of filmstrips, of slides, and of records; otherwise cards for these items should be incorporated in the main catalog. The equipment in the library should include appropriate cabinets and shelves for the storage of audio-visual aids. Pictures also serve useful purposes in teaching. In some schools teachers and pupils engage in a systematic plan for collecting good pictures. Some pictures can be purchased but an excellent collection can be developed by clipping them from current magazines. The library cooperates in such a project by providing a subject file for storage and use by subsequent classes. Over a period of a few years a cooperative picture-collecting project can supply the school with an invaluable resource.

Visual aids also include maps and globes. Each classroom should have its own permanent collection of maps and globes so that ready reference to them is possible at all times. There are some maps, however, which are needed for only brief periods of time in any given class. Usually the same maps are also useful for certain topics taught in other rooms or grades. Multiple use can be secured from seldom-used maps if they are circulated through the library. The librarian can then make them available to any teacher at the appropriate time just as the librarian supplies the classroom with books, films, slides, pictures, and pamphlets.

Paper-bound bulletins and pamphlets with accurate content can usually be obtained free or at little cost from the state and federal bureaus and departments, and sometimes from commercial firms. As an exercise in letter writing and composition teachers frequently have pupils write for various kinds of materials to supplement information available in books owned by the school. Unless there is some central place in which such paper-bound publications can be properly classified and stored, they are soon torn or lost. To ask the sender to replace them next year is an unnecessary expense and waste of material and the taxpayer's money. The library can come to the rescue and provide a "vertical file" in which such materials can be preserved for repeated use. Teachers and the librarian can cooperate in a plan whereby the school can acquire a rich reservoir of pamphlets and bulletins over a period of a few years.

A school which desires a rich curriculum for children should supply each classroom housing pupils in Grade 3 or 4 and above with a complete set of children's encyclopedias. No textbook or combination of textbooks can contain answers to all of children's questions. An adequate resource for ready reference at all times should be available. Encyclopedias seem to meet this need. *World Book*, *Britannica Junior*, and *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia* are the three encyclopedias usually recommended for elementary schools. If the school cannot afford to place a complete set in each

classroom, at least one set should be in the library. If each classroom in the grades named has a set and sufficient funds are available, it is wise to place an additional set or two in the library.

Adequate records, such as a shelf list and a card catalog, are essential if the library is to serve the school as a materials center. An annual inventory should be made of the materials on hand. Books that are getting out-of-date or are worn beyond repair should be discarded. There should be a continuing program for the repair and re-binding of books sufficiently good to merit such time and expense. These various suggestions imply that the collection of books and other materials should be pruned annually. Some items should be discarded, others repaired, while still others will need replacement. Replacement of worn-out titles becomes a part of the annual plan for new purchases.

FINANCIAL SUPPORT

The adequacy of the school's library is a fairly good index to the breadth and quality of the instructional program. High-level teaching and learning cannot take place without the resources with which to do it. It is for these reasons that the annual appropriation for library service should be as high as possible. Most authorities in the library field recommend a minimum of \$1.50 per pupil per year for books, periodicals, other materials, binding, supplies, and printed catalog cards. Most of the existing recommendations on annual financial support were published about 1945. The cost of all books and other library purchases has risen considerably since then; hence it is doubtful whether \$1.50 per pupil per year is enough to develop and operate a good library.

That most school systems are not supporting library service in the schools as generously as is desired is revealed by the data gathered in 1948 by the U. S. Office of Education.⁷ In the 1037 school systems from which reports were received, the annual per pupil expenditures for books and other library materials ranged from \$.73 in Group I cities to \$1.02 in Group IV cities. These amounts included expenditures for high-school libraries. Usually high-school libraries have received the lion's share of the library appropriation; hence, the figures just quoted are not true measures of expenditures for elementary-school libraries in these districts. Although schools in smaller districts spend more per pupil, it does not always follow that smaller schools have better libraries. The total amount spent has an important bearing upon the number of different titles that can be purchased. School systems that have not had library service in elementary schools find it convenient to begin in a small way, perhaps with a \$.50 to \$.75 per pupil appropriation the first year. Each succeeding year the amount is increased until a desirable standard is reached. It is sur-

⁷ Beust and others, *op. cit.*, p. 6.

prising how rapidly library service grows over a period of four to seven years when a graduated schedule and a long-term plan is applied aggressively.

THE LIBRARY STAFF

The library staff consists of one or more professional workers and one or more clerical assistants, depending upon the size of the school. There is no research to which one can turn for guidance regarding the amount of staff which different types of library service demand in different sized schools. The only bases one can use at present in planning the local program are experience of other school systems and the recommendations of leaders in the library field. Both of the latter sources have a common limitation; namely, no provision is made for the scope and character of the services rendered by the libraries in the different sized schools.

No doubt the leaders in the library field are more apt to envision the most adequate service; hence, their suggestions can be taken as the ideal toward which to work. The viewpoint of the American Library Association is probably well represented in the following recommendations by Douglas: ⁸

ENROLLMENT	LIBRARIAN	CLERKS
100 or less	one-third time	none
101 to 300	one-half time	none
301 to 500	1 full-time	1 part-time
501 to 1,000	1 full-time	1 full-time
1,000 to 1,500	1 full-time	1 full-time

These staff recommendations would appear to be adequate for schools with less than 1000 pupils but somewhat short of the need in larger schools. Another source recommended a full-time librarian for approximately 500 pupils and an additional full-time librarian for each additional 500 pupils or major fraction thereof.⁹

School systems that are in the early stages of initiating library service in elementary schools frequently find it impractical to start with a full-quota staff of trained personnel. In Waco, Texas, the first step was the development of enthusiasm for a centralized library in the faculties of the elementary schools. The next step was the selection, redecoration, and equipping of one of the classrooms. With the help of the senior-high-school librarian, the teachers in each elementary school prepared a card catalog for the books from the several classroom collections which made up the initial collection in the central library. Pupils and teachers cooperated in pasting in book pockets and in making charge cards. These steps were taken at different times in the different schools as each could convert a classroom

⁸ Douglas, *The Teacher-Librarian's Handbook*, op. cit., pp. 12-13.

⁹ "Proposals for Public Education in Postwar America," *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 22, No. 18 (April, 1944).

into a library. After a school had a central library, one of the teachers was selected to serve as part-time librarian. She had to do the library work during after-school and Saturday forenoon hours and was paid an extra monthly stipend for this service. At first the senior-high-school librarian and later a system-wide library supervisor gave the teacher-librarians several short lessons on how to go about their new duties. These instructions were necessary and very helpful to the teachers who had had no training in library science. The tasks of repairing books, ordering, classifying, and preparing new books for circulation were done in a central place, first in the senior-high-school library and later in the office of the library supervisor. Each summer the neophyte teacher librarians took courses in library science so that within a few years the school system had "raised its own" trained personnel to staff the libraries in its elementary schools. Within a seven-year period Waco had changed from no library service in its elementary schools to a very commendable program in all its schools.

Many elementary schools are too small to justify a full-time librarian. Sometimes larger schools that are in the early stages of developing library service must be satisfied with a part-time librarian. The shortage of persons with degrees in library science frequently forces schools which are budgeted for a full-time librarian to select a person who has some training but not the equivalent of a degree or a full year's training in library science. Under these several kinds of circumstances the person employed as librarian is usually called a "teacher-librarian." This term designates someone whose basic training and experience is that of a classroom teacher and who, in addition, has had from 12 to 18 semester hours of preparation in library science. The Chicago Public Schools standards state that a teacher-librarian must have been a teacher of excellent or superior quality and must have completed 15 semester hours of college work in specified courses in library science. Other cities, states, or regional accrediting associations posit other amounts of training in library science, the amounts ranging from 12 to 18 semester hours. The term "teacher-librarian" also implies, in most cases, that the person engages part time in classroom teaching and part time as librarian. The teacher-librarian idea represents a plan whereby many elementary schools, especially the smaller ones, can provide themselves with the part-time services of a person with at least a minimum background in the technical aspects of library work.

When choosing a librarian it is desirable to seek a person who has had preparation and experience in classroom teaching in the elementary school and who, in addition, has a degree in library science. These qualifications are desirable for a librarian in any sized elementary school, but are especially needed in larger schools. In view of the shortage of well-trained librarians, school administrators and supervisors should be on the alert to identify outstanding elementary-school teachers who might also

develop an interest in library work. Such individuals should be encouraged to take the training in library science.

THE LIBRARY'S INTERNAL ORGANIZATION

One phase of the library's internal organization deals with the arrangement of shelves, files, card catalog, charging desk, the librarian's desk and workroom, methods of ordering and placing new books into circulation, and ways of re-shelving returned books. These are important matters and must be handled expeditiously if the library is to function smoothly. Some of these matters are decided by the way the room is built while others are at the immediate command of persons trained in library science. Consequently, it seems more profitable to focus the present discussion upon the way in which the library is used and how the librarian functions in the situation. The treatment proceeds on the assumption that the materials center functions primarily as a service agency and that the librarian's teaching activities emerge as classroom teachers request assistance in discharging the teaching duties mentioned earlier in this chapter.

The discussion in preceding portions of this chapter already has established the notion that the librarian should spend a considerable proportion of her time in servicing the instructional programs being carried forward in classrooms by the teachers and pupils. In order that such service to classrooms may be rendered on a high plane, the librarian must have time to confer periodically with each teacher, to make some contact with the classrooms, to search the library's resources for pertinent materials, and to convey these materials to the classrooms. Book trucks may be used to transport materials to and from the classrooms. As a liaison on resources for learning, the librarian makes her greatest contribution to the school's program.

Another of the librarian's important functions is to help children and teachers when they come to the library. Teachers who wish to bring entire class groups to the library when certain classroom tasks, or children's need for further instruction and practice in the use of the library, demand such visits, should have the opportunity to do so. Through individual conference with the librarian or through the use of a "sign-up calendar" on the library bulletin board, entire classes may spend one or more periods in the library as often as the demand arises. Invariably the teacher will want the librarian present at those times to assist in many ways. Throughout the day, or during designated periods, children, on an individual basis or as members of small committees, will come to the library in search of specific books or specialized information. Frequently these pupils need the help of the librarian.

The librarian's third major function deals with the organization and management of the materials themselves. Books, films, bulletins, and

records must be ordered, accessioned, labeled, placed on the shelves or in cabinets, and otherwise gotten ready for use. The daily demands for books must be met; materials of all kinds must be found for individuals and groups. Circulation must be handled expeditiously. Materials being returned to the library must be checked in and shelved. These and dozens of other management and clerical details must receive attention. The library itself must be kept in good operating order.

Children's uses of the library were identified in the preceding description of the librarian's major activities. Class groups, committees of pupils, and individual children will be using the library throughout the day. Some schools find it convenient to restrict the coming of class groups to designated periods; the remaining periods are then specified for committee and individual use. Because of the voluntary use of the library, its schedule of use will vary from day to day. Usually, however, some children may be found in the library at all hours of the day. Some schools stress the advisability of using the half-hour before the school session begins in the morning and the half-hour following the close of the afternoon session as periods peculiarly appropriate for returning, selecting, and checking out books for home reading.

Teachers' uses of the library have been indicated in the preceding description. Teachers will have more contacts with the librarian than with the library since the librarian is the "searcher for materials" needed by teachers. In addition, teachers will use the library on an individual basis, much as pupils use it on an individual basis. Teachers will always accompany their classes when the latter have periods in the library.

Out of the preceding paragraphs it is hoped that the reader can visualize a typical day for the librarian and a typical day's use of the library by teachers, pupils, and classes. Flexibility, yet system and orderliness, characterize the businesslike activity in the library throughout the day. This is how the library meets its challenge for service in today's elementary schools.

PUPIL HELPERS

Most libraries require more service than the assigned staff has time to give. This is a fortunate situation because it virtually forces schools to develop a plan for the use of pupil assistants. Children develop interest and a feeling of ownership for practically any enterprise for which the pupils themselves have real responsibilities and have a part in its development and operation. Many and varied highly significant education values come to pupils who have the opportunity to serve as library helpers. The use of pupil helpers in the library is so important to the pupils that every elementary-school library should have a plan whereby some pupils at each grade level, but particularly pupils in the fifth grade or above, have widespread opportunities to help in the library.

Pupil membership on various library committees can be rotated by the month, or in some other manner, to give every child in the two upper grades in the school an important role in the library during some portion of each school year. Each child's daily or weekly period of service in the library can be staggered in such a fashion as to avoid interference with his classroom work and at the same time provide the library with needed helpers during all periods in the day in which the librarian needs help. High scholarship and outstanding conduct or citizenship records should probably not be used as criteria for selection of pupil helpers. Sometimes the child who has not developed an interest in reading acquires that interest through his work in the library. Children whose timidity, or excess energy, or overaggressiveness, cause conduct infractions can find wholesome outlets for themselves through service to others.

Hundreds of examples could be cited of elementary schools in which pupil helpers have been used in the library in dozens of different ways. Mildred Toner described how the sixth grade in Public School No. 26 in New York City renders all library service in the school except the ordering of new books.¹⁰ In this school the sixth-grade teacher is the teacher-librarian. The sixth-grade class spends five hours per week in the library. One hour of this time is used for individual reading and reference work; the other four hours the children devote to library service. Regina Fitzgerald of the Chesapeake Terrace School in Baltimore County, Maryland, told how pupil assistants manned the library during the hours that the teacher-librarian was busy with regular classroom teaching. Pupil assistants helped in processing books, accessioning books, preparing catalog cards, keeping the library neat and clean, carding returned books, shelving fiction, writing overdue notices, collecting fines, and charging out books.¹¹

Some librarians say that it takes as much time to train pupil helpers as it would take the librarian to perform the tasks herself. Such a statement is undoubtedly an exaggeration, but it is the excuse some schools use for not having pupil helpers. Whatever time the librarian spends in training pupil helpers is that much time devoted to multiplying the number of persons who are familiar with libraries, have acquired library skills, and will probably have a lifelong interest in libraries and in reading. The spirit behind the use of pupil helpers is well described in the following quotation by Fenner:¹²

¹⁰ Mildred Toner, "Service Thru Student Committees," *Elementary-School Libraries Today*, Thirtieth Yearbook (Washington, Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A., 1951), pp. 86-89.

¹¹ Regina I. Fitzgerald, "Training Pupil Assistants," *Elementary-School Libraries Today*, *ibid.*, pp. 120-124.

¹² Phyllis R. Fenner, *The Library in the Elementary School* (New York, Hinds, Hayden, and Eldredge, 1945), pp. 20-21. Quoted by permission of and arrangement with the publishers.

There is the kind of library that runs smoothly, where the librarian works at her desk, or has a well-trained assistant (student or professional worker) who writes the child's name on the card, stamps the card and the book neatly, and hands the book back to the child. In this way, a better record of the books is kept. The card is neater, the date slip is very orderly, the overdue books are checked oftener, and fewer books, no doubt, are missing.

There is another type of library in which the child comes to the desk, signs his own card, stamps his own card and book (a bit crookedly, perhaps, or maybe he gets frisky and stamps it in some peculiar manner). Another child sits at the desk, or, if none is there at the moment, the borrower finds his own book card to sign, and at the same time picks up a few other book cards just for fun. By this system (or lack of system) things are less well cared for, it is true; books do get put back on the shelf once in a while without cards, and books are checked less often. This seems like a slightly messy arrangement, but the children feel that they are a part of the organization. They literally swell with pride to be working at the desk. *Anyone* can work. The library belongs to them all. There are possibly libraries that combine the good features of both systems, and power to them! To have too much organization, to do a thing a certain way just because it always has been done that way, even though a simpler method could be used, takes life out of a library.

The more children who work at the desk, the more there are who learn by experience the importance of doing things right. They are quick to see how much trouble the crazy stampers cause, and frequently a child will exclaim: "Just look how he stamped that book! He just ought to have to find the card." It may be a long slow job training people to return books or to stamp their cards properly in order to make things pleasanter for other people. But, slow as this process is, at least the value is positive, and perhaps, gradually, some children will become a little less selfish. What a fine world it might be!

INSTRUCTION IN THE USE OF BOOKS AND THE LIBRARY

All children need to learn to appreciate the content and value of books and how to handle and care for books. They also need to learn how to use the library to find most quickly the things they seek, and the routines essential for keeping a library in good working order. Many of these things are taught to children routinely by classroom teachers, beginning in the kindergarten. Specific skills in the use of the library, however, seldom come to children unless the school has a central library. The objective in all schools should be the attainment of reasonable facility in the use of a library by all pupils by the time they complete the sixth grade. Such an objective is almost impossible to achieve in a school without a central library, unless there is an extremely close working relationship with a public library.

The use of a systematic, graded series of lessons on the use of books and libraries is one device that has been adopted widely. Most authorities in the library field insist that every good library program must include such

instruction. The following outline indicates the units commonly suggested for such a series of lessons: ¹³

- I. Orientation in library use
 - A friendly welcome
 - Tour of library to discover location of resources
 - Instructions for borrowing, attendance, etc.
- II. Library citizenship
 - Respect for and care of books and equipment
 - Courtesy and fair play
 - Helpfulness—assisting the librarian, etc.
- III. Parts of the book
 - Preface, title page, table of contents, index, etc.
- IV. Classification
 - How books are arranged on the shelves
- V. The card catalog
 - How the contents of the library is indexed
 - Information gained from the catalog
 - How to use the catalog to find books
- VI. The dictionary
 - Abridged and unabridged
 - Parts and principal uses
 - Meaning of abbreviations
- VII. The encyclopedia
 - Arrangement of material
 - How to locate information
- VIII. Reference books
 - (a) Most-used titles (*World Almanac*, *Who's Who*, etc.)
 - (b) Special books limited to use in particular fields (Historical atlases, special indexes, scientific encyclopedias)
- IX. Periodicals and periodical indexes
 - (a) *The Readers' Guide* and its use
 - (b) Introduction to outstanding magazines
- X. Bibliography making
 - Selection and organization of material
 - Form of entry
- XI. Note-taking and briefing—especially the former
- XII. Book selection and book buying
 - Evaluating books
 - Building the personal library
 - Consumer education in book buying

¹³ Lucile F. Fargo, *The Library in the School*, 4th ed. (Chicago, American Library Association, 1947), pp. 85-86. Quoted by permission of and arrangement with the publisher.

There appears to be little argument about the desirability of having children learn the items shown in this outline.¹⁴ There is considerable disagreement, however, even among librarians, as to how library instruction should be organized. Some insist that there should be a graded series of lessons taught by the librarian in accordance with a predetermined schedule. This plan has the advantage of guaranteeing that the lessons will be taught. It does not assure the most effective learning by pupils because many of the lessons would occur at times when children had little motivation for acquiring the attitudes, habits, and skills covered in the lessons. Dynamic motivation arises out of needs developed in classroom instructional activities. It is for this reason that many librarians are beginning to advocate the "integration plan" whereby classroom teachers assume responsibility for teaching these topics to the children. The course of study in reading, language, and the content fields identifies these library skills as work-type reading or study skills. Instruction in them is given attention as needs arise and as pupil deficiencies are noted in the same way that other attitudes, habits, and skills are taught. A review of the outline of topics previously quoted will show the large proportion of items which are usually classified as work-type reading skills. Having the classroom teacher attend to these instructional tasks has the advantage of an appropriate psychological setting in purposeful classroom projects. The teacher would always feel free to request the assistance of the librarian for the technical phases of the work. The so-called "integration plan" thus has all the advantage of the "systematic lessons by the librarian" scheme plus the active assistance of the classroom teachers and the favored settings of classroom instructional programs.

LIBRARY USAGE POLICIES

How children and teachers feel about the library and the extent to which they use it depends a great deal upon the librarian's personality, her attitude toward the library, and the policies under which the library may be used. The librarian who views the library as her private domain, the tranquility of which is disturbed by users, cannot hope to have widespread interest in or enthusiasm for the library. Quite the opposite spirit usually prevails in a school in which pupils and teachers feel that the library is theirs and that the librarian is their helper. The librarian is largely responsible for creating a friendly, happy, orderly atmosphere within the

¹⁴ Similar outlines for lessons in the use of books and libraries may be found in: Jewel Gardiner and Leo B. Baisden, *Administering Library Service in the Elementary School* (Chicago, American Library Association, 1941), Ch. 11; May Ingles and Anna McCague, *Teaching the Use of Books and Libraries* (New York, W. H. Wilson Co., 1944), Ch. 1; Douglas, *The Teacher-Librarian's Handbook*, *op. cit.*, Ch. 7; Carolyn Mott and Leo B. Baisden, *The Children's Book on How to Use Books and Libraries* (New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937).

library. If the librarian is somber, bossy, and speaks in loud or gruff voice, the children are likely to behave likewise. A pleasant, friendly, calm, and low-voiced librarian is most likely to have library users who extend the usual library courtesies to others.

A good librarian's objective should be bare library shelves, not bare because the library has a paucity of materials, but bare because teachers and pupils have borrowed so extensively. Actually, of course, the library shelves will seldom be completely bare, but the idea is to emphasize materials *in use* rather than shelved neatly in the library. Widespread usage of library resources demands liberal loan practices. Each teacher should feel perfectly at ease, in fact, pleased, if she is requesting large temporary classroom collections and is requesting frequent changes in that collection. Requests for classroom collections should, of course, be reasonable and geared peculiarly to the needs of the instructional program in progress at the time. The dynamics of the classroom programs should motivate pupils to wider reading in the classroom collection than school time will permit. Children, on an individual basis, may wish to take home over night, or over a week end, one or more copies of the classroom collection. School policy should permit and encourage such practice. The librarian and teachers can develop a simple device whereby each teacher can easily keep track of which pupils have borrowed which books for home use. The teachers should not be burdened with elaborate record keeping in order that the librarian's circulation statistics may be complete.

Individual pupil borrowing directly from the library for home reading should be governed by policies which will encourage reading as a worthy use of leisure time. Some schools are so afraid that a book might be lost that home reading is actually discouraged. In some schools a pupil cannot borrow a book from the library until the close of the afternoon session, and then he must return it by 8:30 the next morning. Such policy would discourage most children. Other schools, in contrast, encourage every pupil to have a personally borrowed library book in his possession all the time. He has it with him in his classroom so that idle moments may be used in reading. Classroom teachers encourage pupils to read their library books during spare moments as a way of enriching the curriculum for fast learners. Such practice is a marked contrast to the teacher who forbade her pupils to open their library books in the classroom.

Policies which encourage children to do much reading will usually result in much home reading. This means that the library will lose more books than would be the case in a school in which home use was discouraged. A library that is used thoroughly should expect to lose a certain percentage of books each year. It is better to lose a hundred books a year and have a thousand regular readers than to lose not a single book and have only a dozen readers. When books are lost, or fall in the mud puddle on the way to school, all children who can afford to do so should be asked

to pay for them. But no child should be prevented from continued use of the library because he cannot afford to pay for a lost or soiled book.

A fetish prevails in some school libraries over fines for overdue books. The writer's viewpoint on fines is well expressed by Phyllis R. Fenner, herself a librarian in the Plandome Road School, Manhasset, New York: ¹⁵

Children should realize the "why" of rules. They should know that rules are made for a purpose, not just because those in authority want to show it. A book should be returned after a certain period because someone else should be given a chance to use it. One should not talk in a loud voice, because this is not being considerate of others. This approach may seem a bit like wearing away a stone with drops of water, but it is evidently the only practicable method.

The same is true of fines. The charging of fines is no solution. The boy who may be unable to pay his fine is often just the one who most needs to read. The child who is not allowed to use the library because he ignores the rules is the one who probably needs it most. And the child with plenty of money pays his fine without a murmur and goes right on keeping his book overtime. The library gets a certain amount of money from folks like that, but actually it accomplishes nothing. The teacher of small children should share part of the responsibility for the return of the book. The librarian, on her part, should see to it that she is fair in all instances, and that *nothing* discourages the child from coming to the library in order to find out what fun there is in books. Too many adults claim the reason they do not frequent libraries is that they had some unfortunate experience in the library when they were young. One person recalls that when she returned the first book she had ever drawn from the library, she was accused of writing dirty words in it. The words had been there when she had taken the book. She never went to the library again. Children do not understand why grownups are sometimes impolite, nor do they realize that grownups may be acting this way merely because they did not sleep well last night or because they got bad news this morning.

MATERIALS SELECTION PROCEDURES

If the library is to render maximum service to the instructional program of the school, it is important that teachers, supervisors, and principals share with the librarian the responsibility for the selection of library materials. In school systems in which teachers participate actively in the construction and revision of curricula, the teachers should be, and usually are, in an excellent position to indicate the kinds of instructional materials necessary to effect the educational program.

Two major problems usually arise when the library collection is to be extended and improved. One of these problems is to know what materials are available from publishers. Assistance in this matter may be obtained from the approved library lists now published by most state education departments, from the carefully selected book lists published by the American Library Association, and from other professional organizations.

¹⁵ Fenner, *op. cit.*, pp. 23-24. Quoted by permission of and arrangement with the publisher.

A school that is starting a new library and has little more than empty shelves should order *Basic Book Collection for Elementary Grades* and purchase every title listed in it. This list contains a thousand titles carefully selected to meet the general needs in both the informational and recreational fields. The list, completely revised every few years, is sponsored by the American Library Association, the National Education Association, and the National Council of Teachers of English. Other helpful guidance in building up the basic collection may be obtained from various bibliographies of children's books.¹⁶ Information about recently published books may be had from any one of several book reviewing periodicals.¹⁷ If the school has sufficient funds to purchase motion picture films, assistance in their selection can be had from several sources.¹⁸ The same is true of filmstrips,¹⁹ and phonograph records and transcriptions.²⁰

The second major problem that arises in local book selection is that of knowing whether the titles found in lists or presented by publishers represent appropriate and meritorious content. This question need not arise in connection with titles selected from lists prepared by state educational departments, the American Library Association, the Association for Childhood Education, or any of the strictly professional organizations or known authors of book lists. If the question cannot be settled by reviewing lists prepared by such agencies as those named, one can always write to the American Library Association. There is one good rule that should seldom be violated in buying books, encyclopedias, dictionaries, and magazines for the school library, namely, *buy only materials which*

¹⁶ Nora E. Beust, *Five Hundred Books for Children* (Washington, Superintendent of Documents, 1939); *Bibliography of Books for Young Children* (Washington, Association for Childhood Education), revised annually; *Children's Catalog* (New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1951), new edition every five years; Eloise Rue, *Subject Index to Books for Intermediate Grades and Subject Index to Books for Primary Grades* (Chicago, American Library Association), new editions every few years.

¹⁷ *The Booklist* (Chicago, American Library Association), semi-monthly except August; *Elementary English*, published monthly, October to May, by National Council of Teachers of English, 8110 South Halsted St., Chicago, 20; *Horn Book* (Boston, Horn Book Co.), bimonthly; *Wilson Library Bulletin* (New York, H. W. Wilson Co.), monthly, September to June; *Bulletin of the Children's Book Center* (Chicago, University of Chicago Library), monthly except August; *Subscription Books Bulletin* (Chicago, American Library Association), quarterly.

¹⁸ *Audio-Visual Materials: A Handbook for School Librarians* (Trenton, N. J., College Book Store, State Teachers College); E. C. Dent, *Audio-Visual Handbook* (Chicago, Society for Visual Education, 1949); Margaret I. Rufsvold, *Audio-Visual School Library Service: A Handbook for Librarians* (Chicago, American Library Association, 1949); *Educational Film Guide* (New York, H. W. Wilson Co.).

¹⁹ *Filmstrip Guide* (New York, H. W. Wilson Co.); V. M. Falconer, *Filmstrips* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1948).

²⁰ Philip Eisenberg and H. Krasno, *A Guide to Children's Records* (New York, Crown Publishing Co., 1948); Harriot B. Barbour and Warren S. Freeman, *The Children's Record Book* (New York, Oliver Durell, Inc., 1947); *Annotated List of Phonograph Records* (106 Beekman Street, New York, Children's Reading Service), annual revision.

have been approved for elementary-school use by qualified agencies such as those named above. In the past altogether too much of the meager and much-needed money for elementary-school libraries has been spent inadvertently on questionable and useless materials simply because it looked pretty or some friend or some salesman urged its purchase. The most pathetic thing about rural school libraries, next to the paucity of books, is the number of too-difficult reference sets and unreadable books of fine print of eighteenth-century vintage.

THE PROFESSIONAL COLLECTION FOR TEACHERS

Much has been written regarding the desirability of professional growth on the part of teachers in service and the need for having supervisory officers and supervisory techniques that will stimulate professional growth; yet few elementary schools have provided, to say nothing of having exploited the possibilities of, a professional library for teachers within each elementary school. If teachers are to render maximum professional service of a high type, they must be provided with the materials which are the tools of the profession so that educational thought and practice may keep abreast of the changes which are rapidly taking place in public education.

In Chapter 8 much was said about the role of the individual school in school improvement projects, and the role of professional reading in the entire supervisory and in-service education program. Current books in education, journals, and curriculum bulletins from other school systems should be made conveniently available to teachers. The individual school is the best unit through which to make professional library resources available to teachers. The superintendent's office is usually too far away for the individual teacher to make more than an occasional visit to secure a book. The library in each school should have a professional shelf or two for teachers and a separate author and title file for the professional collection. If school district funds are inadequate to include some professional books for teachers in each year's purchases, the teachers in each building might consider contributing a book apiece or placing \$5.00 into a fund for this purpose. Within a few years such a plan will build up a very respectable professional collection for the faculty.

PARENT RELATIONS

Parents can be such a vital factor in the success of an elementary-school library that one is tempted to say that a school library should not exist without extensive parent participation. From a public relations standpoint, the school can hardly afford to ignore the opportunity which the library provides for parent assistance. Every school has many patrons who are

eager to help make the school an excellent school. Many of these same patrons have one or two half-days per week that they would be glad to set aside for service to the school. All that is necessary to obtain their services is an invitation and leadership in what to do.

That parents are eager to help and that schools everywhere are taking advantage of volunteer service is demonstrated by the numerous descriptions in professional literature of the different ways in which parents are helping with the library. In general, parent assistance falls into three categories. The most frequent illustrations of parent help occur when a school is making its initial start in developing a central library. In such instances the P.T.A. or a special group of mothers or fathers will solicit gift books from homes, sponsor money raising events to purchase new books, and assist in giving the library its initial organization. Ellinor Preston, supervisor of school libraries in Richmond, Virginia, told about the ways in which parents helped in their situation.²¹ The board of education had authorized the establishment of central libraries in their 37 elementary schools and had made an initial appropriation for the purchase of books. But no money was available to employ librarians, not even on a part-time basis. Yet teachers and parents wanted the libraries to get started; so the parents came to the rescue. Under the leadership of the library supervisor, parents worked in teams. They were taught how to make the accession record, how to classify the books, how to get the books ready for circulation, how to make the cards for the card catalog, and how to shelve the books. As the supply of new books arrived week by week, the parents got them ready for use. A similar plan in using parent help was described by Bernice Weise, supervisor of school libraries in Baltimore, Maryland.²² In the latter community parents participated in a series of seven "workshop sessions" in which the library supervisor instructed them and demonstrated the basic procedures. Each group met in its own school. They used the new books that had arrived in practicing what they were learning in "on the job" training.

Assisting with the continued operation of the library is another way in which parents can help. If a school cannot afford a librarian, or has only a part-time librarian, parents can take turns, a half-day a week each, to be in the library and keep things going. Even if a school has a complete library staff, parents can take turns for an hour each day, or certain half-days, to free the librarian for work with teachers, for work on book selection committees, and other tasks which otherwise would not get done.

The third category of parent help is really an expansion of the preceding one. In addition to assisting with the daily operation of the library, there

²¹ Ellinor G. Preston, "Parents Man the Assembly Line," *Elementary-School Libraries Today*, op. cit., pp. 90-94.

²² M. Bernice Weise, "Workshop for Training Parents," *Elementary-School Libraries Today*, op. cit., pp. 115-119.

are many continuing tasks which parents can do. Mending worn books, promoting interest in home reading, and encouraging parents to read books on child care are but a few examples. Some schools encourage P.T.A. committees to sponsor an annual fund raising event to supplement the budget provided by the board of education. In general, the P.T.A. should not engage in raising funds for things which should be provided from school budgets, but in some cases this is the only recourse the school has for building up its library.

Each elementary-school library should make definite efforts to be of service to parents. Many parents are interested in reading books and pamphlets on child care and family relations. The library should have a shelf of books for parents. A few new titles can be added each year. Such purchases could well be made by the P.T.A. because by doing so the P.T.A. would be fostering one of its own objectives. Books for parents could be used with child study groups sponsored by the group. Periodically the librarian should prepare short graded lists of new children's books. Through the P.T.A. library committee these lists could be distributed to parents and used by them when buying birthday or Christmas presents. With the co-operation of local bookstores, a continued campaign urging parents to buy books instead of costly and useless gadgets would tend to result in wiser spending of money for children's presents and the building up of home libraries by the children.

SYSTEM-WIDE RELATIONS

In urban centers library service for schools is usually provided according to one of three patterns. In some cities school libraries are financed and operated by the school system without any official tie-up with the public library. Within such cities may be found a centralized school-library division which coordinates, supervises, and administers all the libraries in all the schools, whereas in other cities there is no central library management. In the former cases the libraries in elementary schools find themselves as part of a well-coordinated system of school libraries. In the latter situations each elementary-school library is more or less on its own, and it flourishes in accordance with the interest and leadership in each building. In general, elementary-school libraries have fared worse when each has been on its own than when they have been integral parts of a system of school libraries.

The amount and types of service which the individual school receives in school systems that have a supervisor or consultant of libraries on the central administrative staff depends upon the local arrangements. Usually the centralized services give greater assurance that budget appropriations for library work will be given proper consideration when school budgets are prepared. Centralized purchasing of books and supplies usually pro-

duces economies. In some school systems in which the elementary-school libraries are staffed with teacher-librarians or parents the central office classifies each book properly before it is sent to the school. Sometimes catalog cards are purchased or prepared in the central office. In other instances even charge cards are made and book pockets pasted into the new books. If teachers without training in library service or parents must be asked to serve as librarians, the supervisor of libraries is called upon to give these persons such instruction and direction as are needed.

In rural areas a school may be a member of a cooperative plan for library service. Sometimes the county superintendent's office provides a centralized service to which each of the cooperating districts contributes. In other cases a county public library or a city public library by contract may render service to rural schools. Regardless of the arrangement, the individual school must have plans whereby it can make maximum use of whatever service is available. If a bookmobile comes to the school regularly, routines must be established for getting requests for special items to the central library in time to be delivered on the next trip. Teachers and their classes must be scheduled so that in prompt sequence all may have access to the bookmobile while it stops at the school. If a bookmobile is not available and teachers must visit the central service center to exchange books, time can be saved if the school has a schedule whereby teachers take turns making the trip to the library. The extent of library service in rural schools frequently depends upon the demand for it by the teachers and administrators in those schools and the feasibility and efficiency of the organization which the local school has developed for utilizing the available services.

SCHOOL-LIBRARY AND PUBLIC-LIBRARY RELATIONS

Most urban schools are in communities in which there is a well established public library. Wherever this is true, two other patterns for school-library service (in addition to the one described in the preceding section) are possible. One plan is to have all school service rendered by the public library. As a rule this plan has not worked too well. The other arrangement calls for a joint service by the school system and the public library.²⁴ School-library service undertaken cooperatively by the public library and the board of education may include only one or more of a variety of arrangements as to purchase of books and supplies, selection of personnel, space and equipment, routine management, and so on. In fact, the variations are so numerous that it is difficult to find two cities which exhibit identical agreements. If a joint service is to work well, it is extremely important that the details of the agreement be explicit. Agnes Krarup,

²⁴ For details of such agreements, see *Schools and Public Libraries: Working Together in School Library Service* (Washington, N.E.A., 1941).

supervisor of library services in the Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, public schools, stated that much of the success of their long-standing arrangement with their public library was due to the specificity of their agreement. Each party to the cooperative contract knows exactly what his role is.²⁴

Although the opinion is held by some that the most efficient service will result if school libraries are under the complete control of the board of education, there are certain advantages to be gained from cooperative administration. Experience has demonstrated that cooperative administration results in better service to both the school and the community through centralized organization of reading resources, which saves duplication of books, makes a larger collection available to the schools, effects some financial economy, and is more apt to provide trained personnel. It also gives greater continuity in the development of the library habit and provides a better chance for all-round library development for the community.

Even if the school does not have an official service agreement with the local public library, the latter usually welcomes certain contacts with elementary-school teachers and their pupils. Invariably the public library has certain resources which the school does not have and which the public library is glad to loan to teachers. The public library welcomes excursion groups from the schools as a method of familiarizing pupils with the library. Children in the intermediate grades should be encouraged to obtain a public-library card and to become regular individual borrowers. The faculty of each school should be familiar with all the library resources in the community and make use of all of them. School and public libraries have similar objectives and they should work together in serving the community.

STATE PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL-LIBRARY SERVICE

The interest of the state in public school library service is not a recent development. As early as 1835 the New York legislature passed a law relating to school libraries. By 1860, 14 states had recognized school libraries in their laws.²⁵ The Georgia legislature in 1935 marked the 45th state in which the legislatures had considered school libraries of enough importance to education to make laws for their establishment. In 27 states school authorities may contract with existing public libraries for school-library service. The legal codes of 45 states (all except Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Vermont) provide some organization (either the state board of education, the state department of education, the state library

²⁴ Agnes Krarup, "Cooperation in Pittsburgh," *Elementary-School Libraries Today*, *op. cit.*, pp. 217-222.

²⁵ F. H. Koos, *State Participation in Public School Library Service*, Contributions to Education, No. 265 (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927), Ch. I.

commission, or some similar body) to aid in the promotion of school-library service.

Although the details of the law differ materially from one state to another, one of the functions of a state library agency is "to develop effective state-wide school-library service through":²⁶

1. Legislation and regulations of the department of education to ensure recognition of standards; provision for contractual and cooperative service between school libraries and local, county, district, or regional public libraries; for state aid and minimum support from local school budgets; for certification of librarians.
2. A program for the development of school library service in elementary through secondary schools throughout the state.
3. Determination and administration of standards for school library service and school librarians.
4. Administration of state aid and encouragement of adequate school budget provisions for library service.
5. Advisory, supervisory and information service to existing libraries and in library establishment, through field visits, conference, institutes, correspondence, and publications.
6. Development of cooperation with other state educational agencies and with individuals and groups responsible for the educational program of the state.

Seventeen states make definite legal provisions for state aid to school libraries. In six states (Idaho, Louisiana, New York, North Carolina, South Dakota, and Wisconsin) the provision is mandatory. The amount and the form of state aid varies according to the law in each state. Where the appropriation is on a per capita basis, the amount ranges from three cents to one dollar per child. In some states the allocation is based on the number of teachers, the amounts ranging as high as thirty dollars per teacher. In Louisiana the state aid is in the form of direct purchases of books by the state. Sixteen states also make legal provision for county aid for school libraries; in six of these states (California, Iowa, Michigan, Montana, Nevada, and Oregon) county support is mandatory.

State participation in school-library development includes a number of services in addition to legislative recognition and financial aid. Thirteen states provide full-time supervisors of school libraries. These supervisors make field visits and may be called on by local schools to give assistance and guidance in library development. In 26 states local school boards may select books only from lists prepared or approved by the state agency. In some instances the book lists for elementary schools are combined with the high-school lists, but 14 states²⁷ issue separate approved book lists

²⁶ *The State Library Agency: Its Functions and Organization*, 5th ed. (Chicago, American Library Association, 1945), p. 3.

²⁷ These fourteen states are: Alabama, Georgia, Illinois, Kentucky, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, Washington, and West Virginia.

for elementary-school libraries. Certification for school librarians is now provided in some form in every state.²⁸

State participation in school-library service must also be viewed in terms of the state's relationship to public libraries. To the extent that service to schools and service to the public are integral phases of a comprehensive service to the community, school people should be familiar with the state and local organization for public-library service. Many states provide state aid to public libraries and allow a special organization grant for the establishment of organized service in areas heretofore without library service. Schools in need of better school service can frequently achieve their objective easier if they cooperate with the public-library program. This is particularly true in rural areas.

Another service usually financed from state funds consists of the mail service or traveling library available from state educational institutions. In some states the state university or a state teachers college has developed an extensive loan service of books, slides, and motion-picture films. Usually this service is available to local schools at very low cost.

FEDERAL PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL-LIBRARY SERVICE

At present there are no federal statutes regarding the organization, administration, and support of school libraries. As far as public schools are concerned, federal participation in library service may be divided into three types. The first type consists of the publication of bulletins, many of which are usable by children and may be obtained in local schools free of charge or at very low cost. The second type of federal participation flourished during the depression period prior to World War II and consisted of the Works Progress Administration projects whereby books were repaired and library service was developed in areas previously without public-library service; the Public Works Administration provided funds for the erection of library buildings and library rooms in school buildings; and the National Youth Administration provided funds whereby high-school pupils could earn some money by serving as assistants in school libraries.

The third type of federal participation consists of the Library Service Division of the U. S. Office of Education. This Library Service Division was created in 1937 and was charged with definite responsibilities relating to (a) fact-finding and research, (b) fostering cooperation among libraries, and between libraries and schools, and (c) experimentation and the promotion of libraries generally. As time goes on, local schools and state library organizations should be able to obtain increasing amounts of data and guidance from this division of the U. S. Office of Education.

²⁸ E. A. Lathrop, "Certification of School Librarians," *School Life*, Vol. 25 (May 1940), pp. 239, 256.

LIBRARY STANDARDS

The increasing importance of the school library has led to conspicuous endeavors since about 1920 to formulate guiding principles and standards for the administration of library service. A number of these standards are based upon two reports published by the American Library Association and popularly known as the "Certain Standards" because the chairman of each of the joint committees was C. C. Certain. One of these reports dealt with the high-school library while the other one outlined the standards for elementary-school libraries.²⁹ The latter was prepared by a joint committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association and the School Librarian's Section of the American Library Association. The report of this joint committee is very comprehensive. The latest outline of standards is in *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow* by the American Library Association.

Those contemplating the establishment of an elementary-school library or improving the organization and administration of one already established would do well to obtain standards such as those outlined in the above reference or similar ones prepared by state departments of education or city school systems.

Interest in the development of library service in elementary schools has led State Departments of Education to formulate standards for the improvement, classification, and accrediting of elementary-school libraries. Spain's study³⁰ showed that in 1940, 23 states had some procedure for evaluating elementary-school libraries.³¹ In some instances states have formulated regular standards similar to those for the high schools; in other states sections of score cards, annual reports, or rating sheets serve the purpose. The writer's interest in more adequate and more up-to-date standards for library service in elementary schools prompted him to encourage two of his graduate students to undertake the development and evaluation of a new set of standards for elementary-school libraries.³²

²⁹ The complete report of the Joint Committee on Elementary School Library Standards is given in the Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A. (1925), pp. 326-353.

³⁰ F. L. Spain, *School Library Standards*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1940.

³¹ These twenty-three states are: Arkansas, California, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Mississippi, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Washington, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.

³² Dorothy Jane Crow, *Development and Application of Criteria for Appraising Library Service in an Elementary School*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1948; Katherine A. Cook, *Development and Application of Criteria for Appraising Library Service in an Elementary School*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1950. See appendix for a digest of these standards.

THE PRINCIPAL AND LIBRARY SERVICE

It is doubtful whether even the librarian is in a more strategic position to influence library service in a particular school than is the principal. In most schools so much of the leadership for all phases of the school program rests with the principal that it would be unreasonable to assume that the principal's role in library service would be otherwise. These leadership and administrative functions make it imperative that the principal have a clear and broad vision of the place of library service in a modern school program. A clear understanding of the functions of library service must be developed among the teachers. Invariably the principal must take the initiative in improving library service in his school.

In many communities the principal will be responsible for laying the plans and securing teacher participation in the selection of library materials. In order that teacher participation may be done expeditiously the principal must assure the availability and economical use of such library aids as the book lists previously mentioned. Faculty cooperation must be arranged for so that the curricular needs of the entire school will be appropriately balanced in the orders placed for books.

Another area in which leadership will be expected from the principal is the actual organization and operation of the library program within the school. The organization and the schedule under which the library itself operates will need to be determined in the light of sound principles of library service. The machinery through which the library functions will need to be coordinated with other phases of the school program so that library service can function smoothly in relationship to the whole program. Since the library is a service agency, its prerogatives should be subordinated to those of the instructional program. There should be no occasion for teachers to say that they desire materials from the library but the hours and rules of the library are such that it is impossible to utilize the resources which are in the library.

Assisting teachers with classroom use of library materials is another responsibility which comes to the principal. Frequently teachers need assistance in the use of films, slides, phonograph records, or books. Many teachers are eager to surround their pupils with interesting and pertinent reading materials but have few if any facilities for managing the problem within the classroom. Sometimes there are no bookcases or shelves or those that do exist are too high for the pupils to reach. Frequently there are no tables and chairs that can be used in creating a library corner or a reading nook. An interested principal can give teachers aid on many such problems.

Most school libraries make very inadequate use of the resources of other

libraries. Frequently the teachers of a school have never set foot inside the door of the public library in the community, and those in the public library are equally unfamiliar with the activities of the school library. Frequently children make no contact with the public library during their entire school career. Absence of extensive cooperative relations between school and public library is inexcusable, and those responsible for such lack of relations are committing an injustice to the community. Most public libraries buy some children's books. Overlapping membership on school- and public-library selection committees would facilitate the building up of a collection of books in school and public library together which would result in a better-balanced collection, a more adequate collection, and the avoidance of unnecessary duplication. A union or joint catalog would further facilitate greater use of the materials of both agencies. In the summer, when many children have much time for recreational reading, the school library is locked up and the supply of children's books in the public library is inadequate to meet the need. Cooperative arrangements between school and public library could make both collections available during the summer. If the school librarian is not on duty during the summer, perhaps the public library could staff the school library a few hours each day, or the school librarian could be employed by the public library during the summer months. The time has come when those responsible for the administration of public service can no longer tolerate the wastage of public funds such as is represented by lack of cooperative planning, financing, and utilizing of a community's library resources.

What has been said about cooperation between school and public libraries on children's books applies with equal emphasis to books for adults, particularly in the field of parent education. Schools which are doing a real job of community education are in need of reading materials for adults. Through cooperative planning much of the needed material could be provided by the public library. Parent-Teacher Associations and child-study clubs, sponsored by the school, can be made more vital if appropriate reading materials are available. Both school and public libraries should recognize the problem and cooperate in meeting the need.

Most schools make inadequate use of library resources that are outside of the local community. Many state libraries, some state education departments, and many colleges and universities maintain traveling library divisions through which loan collections are sent to local schools. It is not uncommon for these loan centers to have films and slides as well as books. Many state agencies, such as the highway department, the agricultural department, and the game and fish commission, publish pamphlets useful in elementary schools. The same is true of federal agencies. The principal should be well informed about the outside resources available to the school and should familiarize his teachers with the sources, the lists of materials obtainable, and the procedures for getting them.

Whether a school has a professional library for teachers and how it is used depends largely on the principal. The recent interest in faculty participation in curriculum revision and in all phases of school management makes it increasingly important that each school or each school system have a generous professional library for teachers. Frequently the local professional library can be augmented by loan collections from the state library, the state department of education, or the state colleges and university. Again it is the principal who must take the leadership in creating the faculty organization through which these materials are utilized in studying and in meeting local problems.

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EDUCATIONAL VIEWPOINT and policy in this country have now accepted squarely the school's responsibility for its share in the protection and promotion of children's physical and mental health and well-being. Educational thought was slow, and schools were still slower, to recognize the school's part in health. Although the paramount importance of health in the lives of individuals and in the welfare of a people has been recognized from an early period, it has not been until very recent years that health has gained its rightful emphasis in education. Most of the progress which has been made in the field of school health work has come since 1900¹ and more particularly since 1915; ~~possibly~~ the emphasis upon health has resulted largely from deficiency, ~~wastage~~ ^{was} ~~covered~~ during times of war. Even physical education was late in developing; in 1900 only 83 out of 273 leading cities had appointed directors of physical education.² Although some states had physical-education legislation prior to World War I,³ most of the laws relating to physical education have been placed upon the statutes since 1915.⁴ By 1930, 37 states had passed physical-education laws; 32 states had prepared manuals; and 22 had state directors. In 1904 the average time devoted to health instruction in Grades 1 to 6, inclusive, was 64 minutes per week; by 1926 this time allotment had increased to 245 minutes per week.⁵

The school's present full acceptance of its interest in, and concern for, children's health is based on several factors. Every phase of a child's

¹ The beginning of school health work was made in Boston in 1894 following a series of epidemics among school children. Chicago began health work in the schools in 1895, New York in 1897, and Philadelphia in 1898. See T. D. Wood and H. G. Rowell, *Health Supervision and Medical Inspection of Schools* (Philadelphia, W. B. Saunders Co., 1927), p. 18.

² J. B. Nash, *The Administration of Physical Education* (New York, A. S. Barnes Co., 1931), p. 40.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 45.

⁴ North Dakota in 1899, Ohio in 1904, and Idaho in 1913.

⁵ T. A. Storey and W. S. Small, *Recent State Legislation for Physical Education*, U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin 40 (1918).

⁶ C. H. Mann, *How Schools Use Their Time* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928), p. 122.

training is conditioned by the state of his health. Susceptibility to disease, physical defects, or bad habits of living are handicaps to success in intellectual pursuits. Even if a child attains high academic achievements, they are of little value to him in life unless he also has physical vigor. It would seem poor economy for a school system to spend thousands or even millions of dollars for effective instruction and then refuse to provide the relatively few dollars necessary to keep the pupils in such physical condition as would permit their taking advantage of this educational offering.

The fact that the function of the elementary school is to promote the wholesome, well-rounded development of children in the direction of the purposes of education in American democracy provides the second basic reason for the school's interest in children's health. The details of this relationship were set forth in Chapter 2, reference to which will indicate that the school is concerned with the wholesome normal physical development of each child. This requires an adequate, properly balanced diet; freedom from remediable defects, accidents, illness, and injurious environmental influences; a healthy organism undergoing normal physiological development; a healthy personality which encompasses mental, emotional, moral, and social health; and the gradual acquisition of habits, attitudes, and knowledge which will fortify the person's individual and community living throughout his life.

The increasing importance of better health for school-age children was set forth dramatically in 1951 in a joint publication of the U. S. Children's Bureau, the U. S. Public Health Service, and the U. S. Office of Education. In a brochure which was given wide distribution, the leaders in these three federal agencies listed the following health priorities:⁷

1. Provision of significant experiences for learning to live healthfully in home, school, and community.
2. Development of better screening techniques for detecting children needing medical attention.
3. Development of local resources for diagnosis and treatment.
4. Orientation of parents and of school and health personnel in modern concepts of mental health.
5. Reduction of incidence of dental caries.
6. Detection, diagnosis, and treatment of children with impaired hearing.
7. Detection, diagnosis, and treatment of children with defective vision.
8. Detection, diagnosis, and treatment of children with epilepsy.
9. Recognition of the special health problems of the community.
10. Provision and maintenance of adequate facilities to assure safe drinking water in schools.
11. Provision and maintenance of sufficient sanitary, convenient toilet facilities in schools.
12. Extension of nutritionally adequate and palatable school lunches which meet recommended sanitary standards.

⁷ *Better Health for School-Age Children* (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1951), p. 4.

13. Elimination of environmental hazards and observance of safety precautions to prevent accidents.
14. Provision for suitable education of children with physical handicaps.

THE SCOPE OF SCHOOL HEALTH WORK

The foregoing discussion has sketched the nature and the breadth of the school's interest in children's health and has implied the objectives for which the school strives. As health work has gradually evolved into an integral and extensive phase of the school program, school systems have developed a variety of channels through which it was hoped that the desired results would be achieved. For the elementary school these channels now number nearly 20, depending upon the detail with which the analysis is made. A preliminary list would include (1) daily observation by teachers, (2) control of communicable disease, (3) periodic medical and dental examinations, (4) correction of defects, (5) vision and hearing testing, (6) safety as concerns fire, traffic, play, buildings, and grounds, (7) physical education, (8) first aid, (9) school lunch, (10) health instruction, (11) hygienic school schedule, (12) school sanitation, (13) habit training, (14) mental hygiene, (15) school nursing, medical, dental, and psychiatric service, (16) special classes, (17) school records, and (18) community coordination.

The analysis just given constitutes an impressive list of the many ways in which elementary schools endeavor to make their contribution to children's health. As each of these channels has been introduced, policies and procedures have had to be developed. As experience was gained with the different methods, policies and procedures have been changed. In some instances purposes have been altered completely. The actual operation of each of these activities has required a plan of organization. Invariably the organization and the administration of the activity have undergone change as purposes, policies, and procedures have changed. Organization should reflect educational policy; or, in other words, to view organization clearly one must examine purposes, policies, and procedures.

In the sections which follow, organization and administration of the school health program are viewed and discussed in the light of the purposes, policies, and procedures involved in a number of important phases of school health work.

TEACHER OBSERVATION OF CHILDREN'S HEALTH AND COMMUNICABLE DISEASE CONTROL

The maintenance of continuing optimum health in the school population requires, in addition to the periodic medical examination, some regular daily procedure for recognizing communicable diseases, the many minor but frequent deviations from normal health, and the symptoms which may

be the preliminary indices of health deficiencies which have developed since the last medical examination. In all too many cases the teacher's daily observation of the health conditions of school children has been a superficial procedure accompanied by an inadequate understanding of the teacher's strategic relationship to children's health and the broad viewpoint from which the teacher ought to keep a continuous close view of the growing child. Inquiry into the health program in New York showed that as a rule "morning inspection" was almost wholly devoted to aesthetics, the teacher confining her observation to cleanliness and neatness of dress.⁸

Recent viewpoints in education and in health have given a much more significant role to teacher observation of children's health than was inherent in the older concept of "morning inspection." Since the child who is growing and developing in a desirable way and according to his capacities is a child who is healthy and well adjusted, the teacher's observation of child growth must center around the physical, mental, emotional, and social health of the whole child. Careful and continuing observation should help the teacher to (1) become aware of the needs of the child as a basis for teaching, (2) find the children in the group about whom a conference should be held with parent, the family physician, the dentist, and nurse for medical and dental examination and follow-up on remedial care, (3) exclude from school and report to the health department all children who show symptoms of communicable disease or who, for other reasons, may be considered as possible sources of infection, and (4) develop continuous records of child development during the entire school life of the child. In order that teachers may function effectively in terms of this broader view it is important that teachers should be familiar with many facts relating to child growth and development and to the protection and improvement of child health.⁹ The usual morning health review becomes much more important than it used to be and serves more functions than it formerly did. Teachers must know what to look for and have time for a continued process of observation.¹⁰

The teacher's strategic relationship to the control of communicable dis-

⁸ C.-E. A. Winslow, *The School Health Program* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1938), p. 87.

⁹ For an excellent discussion of these topics see *Health Education*, Report of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the N.E.A. and the American Medical Association (Washington, N.E.A., 1941), Chs. IV and V.

¹⁰ For recently published helpful bulletins on teacher observation of children's health see: George M. Wheatley, *What Teachers See* (New York, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., 1948), a 32-page bulletin well illustrated with color-photographs, and provided with an accompanying sound film strip; J. F. Rogers, *What Every Teacher Should Know About the Physical Conditions of Her Pupils*, rev. ed., U. S. Office of Education, Pamphlet No. 68 (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1945); George M. Wheatley and Grace T. Hallock, *Health Observation of School Children* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1951); Charles C. Wilson, "Teacher Contributions in School Health," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, Vol. 22 (September, 1948), pp. 14-18.

ease and to children's continuing health needs much more emphasis than it has received in the past. The teacher sees the child every day throughout the school year and knows the child better than anyone else on the school staff. The teacher knows the child during periods of good health and vigor and is familiar with the child's developmental status, his normal behavior and appearance, and his rate of growth. The teacher is thus better able than anyone else in school to note deviations from normal health, development, and behavior. Frequently behavior symptoms appear much earlier than observable physical symptoms which are the forerunner of illness. At one time it was thought that only nurses and physicians were competent to identify children who were becoming ill, but experience has demonstrated that observant teachers who know the child so well through much contact are better able to note early deviations from normal health and behavior than nurses or physicians who make very infrequent contact with the individual child. Research has shown teachers to be highly competent in identifying children who are deviating from normal health. An earlier study showed that teachers were able to select without too much error the pupils who should receive a complete medical examination.¹¹ A more recent study gave statistical evidence showing teachers to be satisfactorily reliable in conducting physical inspections.¹² Ninety per cent of the teachers' judgments were corroborated by the physicians. Years of school-teaching experience, average length of classroom acquaintance with the child, and the principal's general success-rating of the teachers were not significant factors in the teachers' ability in inspecting children.

The importance of the classroom teacher's role in continuous observation of children's health can be appreciated more fully as one looks at absenteeism. The findings of a California study of absenteeism among 8000 elementary-school children are summarized in Table 30. Note that respiratory diseases account for 46.4 per cent of all absences and that the other common communicable diseases are responsible for only 3.5 per cent of the absences and 12.9 per cent of all days lost. The more effective that teachers can be in spotting the onset of communicable diseases at the earliest possible moment the less spread there will be among other children and the smaller the total days lost through absenteeism. During the period of January through June while the California study was in progress, only 15 per cent of the 8000 pupils had no absences whatsoever and only 20 per cent had no medical absences.¹³ In terms of days lost per 1000 pupil

¹¹ D. B. Nyswander, *Solving School Health Problems* (New York, The Commonwealth Fund, 1942), pp. 28-36.

¹² Ben W. Miller, "A Critical Evaluation of the Effectiveness of the Teacher in the Physical Inspection of Public School Children," *Research Quarterly*, Vol. 14 (May, 1943), pp. 131-143.

¹³ Marjorie L. Craig, "Absenteeism in the School Health Program," *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation*, Vol. 20 (December, 1949), pp. 638-639, 676-679.

TABLE 30: Relative Frequency of Absences, by Cause, Among Grade School Children in Selected Schools in Seven California Cities, January-June, 1947 *

CAUSES OF ABSENCE	PER CENT		RATE PER 1,000 PUPIL DAYS	
	<i>Of All Absences</i>	<i>Of All Days Lost</i>	<i>Absences</i>	<i>Days Lost</i>
Grand Total	100.0	100.0	30.0	76.3
Medical—Total	81.2	86.8	24.4	66.2
Respiratory Diseases	46.4	46.1	13.9	35.2
Acute—Total	43.2	42.0	12.9	32.1
Common cold	35.3	31.0	10.5	23.7
Influenza, grippe	3.7	6.5	1.1	5.0
Sore throat, tonsillitis	4.2	4.5	1.3	3.4
Other	3.2	4.1	1.0	3.1
Common Communicable Diseases	3.5	12.9	1.1	9.8
Whooping cough5	3.1	.2	2.4
Chicken pox	1.8	6.2	.5	4.6
Mumps9	2.8	.3	2.2
Other3	.8	.1	.6
Skin Disorders	2.6	4.9	.8	3.8
Contagious	1.4	3.5	.4	2.7
Non-contagious	1.2	1.4	.4	1.1
Digestive Conditions	10.8	6.0	3.2	4.6
Dental Conditions	2.3	1.5	.7	1.1
Ear Conditions	1.6	1.7	.5	1.3
Eye Conditions	1.4	1.2	.4	.9
Operations7	2.1	.2	1.6
Tonsils and adenoids5	1.3	.16	1.0
Other2	.8	.06	.6
Miscellaneous	7.6	6.4	2.3	4.9
Headache	4.4	2.0	1.3	1.5
Muscle and joint aches and pains6	.3	.2	.2
Other	2.6	4.1	.8	3.2
Injuries—Total	2.7	2.8	.8	2.2
By cutting or piercing instruments3	.2	.1	.2
Falls6	.7	.2	.5
Other	1.8	1.9	.5	1.5
Other Medical	1.5	1.2	.5	.9
Non-Medical—Total	18.8	13.2	5.6	10.1
Truancy	1.3	.9	.4	.7
Home help needed	3.8	2.1	1.1	1.6
Parental neglect	3.2	2.0	1.0	1.5
Trip; out of town	4.4	4.8	1.3	3.6
Others	6.1	3.4	1.8	2.7

* From "School Absenteeism." Reprinted from *Statistical Bulletin*, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., Vol. 31, No. 2 (February, 1950), p. 2. This study, which was sponsored by the California State Department of Education and the State Department of Health, was a cooperative effort of state and local health and educational authorities, with the aid and participation of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company.

days, the rates of absence were: for all ages, 76; for ages 5 and 6, 107; for age 7, 86; for ages 8 and 9, 69; for ages 10 and 11, 60; and for ages 12 and over, 67.

In the control of communicable disease there are several important facts and principles to observe. A policy on exclusion was set forth by the American Association of School Administrators in the following terms: ¹⁴

The principle on which general protection against communicable diseases is based is simple—namely, exclude all children with suspicious signs without waiting to establish a diagnosis. The suspected child should be sent, without delay, to a separate room in the school where his studies can be continued without endangering other children and remain there until the school physician or nurse inspects him.

If no physician or nurse is present or available, exclusions must be made by teachers or principals on the basis of suspicion; this may often be necessary in rural situations. When this is done the family becomes responsible for procuring the advice of a practicing physician.

The common cold is the key to communicable disease control because its several symptoms may be present in one or more of the other communicable diseases. Thus a cough may mean a cold, measles, influenza, whooping cough, pneumonia, or bronchitis. Hoarseness may have similar significance. A running nose may be due to a cold, chicken pox, measles, German measles, influenza, or infantile paralysis. A sore throat may indicate a cold, scarlet fever, measles, septic sore throat, or diphtheria. A skin rash may be a simple flush accompanying a cold with fever, or it may indicate measles, scarlet fever, German measles, or chicken pox, or one of the skin diseases, such as ringworm, impetigo, or itch. Pain may be present in the head, throat, chest, or abdomen, or fever may occur in any of the diseases already mentioned and many more. Nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, or constipation may accompany any of the acute diseases of childhood. Pallor, lassitude, or irritability may indicate oncoming illness, possibly communicable.

Several days frequently elapse before an identification can be made. In the meantime, the child exposes others if allowed to stay in school. A policy of prompt exclusion on suspicion, without waiting for definite diagnosis, is necessary to protect the schools against the spread of epidemics.* Such a policy appears at first glance to be destructive of good attendance records, but experience proves the contrary. It is true that some exclusions are made in circumstances where no major disease develops and the child is back in 48 hours. Many brief exclusions of this kind, however, will affect the attendance record less than two or three long absences due to a fully developed case of scarlet fever or other major communicable disease. Moreover, the short exclusions are useful even when no major disease develops because they tend to minimize, if not prevent, the spread of colds. Finally, and most important, no child can do good schoolwork when suffering from a cold or incipient disease and should, therefore, be at home for his own good. "When a pupil in school is suspected of having communicable disease, such as measles, scarlet fever, or chicken pox,

* See Chapter XVI (*Health in Schools*) for special precautions about sending children home in bad weather and giving assurance that someone will be present to receive them.

¹⁴ *Health in Schools*, rev. ed., Twentieth Yearbook (Washington, American Association of School Administrators, 1951), pp. 328-330.

he should be separated immediately from other pupils and arrangements made for sending him home." **

To summarize, children should be excluded from school whenever they manifest any of the following symptoms:

flushing	fever
repeating sneezing	nausea or vomiting
sniffles	diarrhea
red or watery eyes	skin eruption
eyes sensitive to light	skin peeling
running nose	rash
sore throat	pain
listlessness	cough
pallor	dizziness
abnormal irritability	

When children have been excluded from school on suspicion of communicable diseases or when they return to school after illness, consideration should be given to whether or not it is safe to readmit them. Readmission policies will depend upon local personnel and health facilities. The following are mentioned in order of their desirability: (a) medical certificate from school medical adviser or family physician, (b) certificate from school nurse or health department, (c) note from parent, or (d) judgment of teacher or principal. In case of epidemic threats, medical judgment is imperative.

** National Committee on School Health Policies. "Suggested School Health Policies." *Journal of Health and Physical Education* 11:334; May 1940.

The foregoing quotation makes it evident that teachers should be cautioned against making a diagnosis of the type of illness the child may have or making any decisions on what the child needs to have done. The majority of communicable diseases start with symptoms similar to those of the common cold, and even physicians have difficulty in particularizing the ailment until it has progressed to the point where differentiating characteristics are evident. Much loose talk by teachers as to what illness the child has and what ought to be done for him usually results in much-deserved unfavorable comment about teachers, friction between teachers and parents, and friction between teachers and the practicing physicians of the community. Through a program of adult education parents can be aided to a clear understanding of the teacher's role in health protection and that the mere fact that a child is sent home because of symptoms of illness is no reflection on the parents and is no assurance that the child is coming down with any kind of illness that may last for more than a day.

Recent years have brought about a marked revision of viewpoint on the question as to whether schools should be closed when epidemics occur. The present consensus of opinion of public health officials is that in cities epidemics can be controlled better if schools remain open than if they are closed. It has been found that when city schools are closed many children play together unsupervised, go to the movies together, visit each other,

and in other ways have numerous opportunities for contact and for the spread of the diseases. On the other hand, if schools are kept open and regular inspections are conducted, the schools can be made a safe place for well children, while the sick ones can be excluded and followed up by the public health agency responsible for the control of contagious diseases.

Whenever children are absent or excluded from school because of symptoms of what might be a communicable disease, it is highly important that a medical diagnosis be made so that adequate care and preventive treatment can be given if the illness should develop into any one of the more serious communicable diseases. One of the chief dangers in communicable diseases consists of the more or less permanent after-effects, many of which can be prevented by early diagnosis and proper care. Getting a medical diagnosis of suspected cases of communicable diseases constitutes a serious obstacle in many community situations. Some schools are fortunate enough to have access to a sufficiently adequate health staff so that diagnosis can be secured readily, but such is not the case in the majority of schools, particularly those in small communities and rural areas. Where the responsibility for obtaining a medical diagnosis rests with the parents there may be an inadequate feeling of responsibility or financial inability. This problem has been met in an increasing way in several rural areas. The County Health Department enters into an arrangement with the County Medical Society whereby any child in the county, regardless of the economic status of the family, is given a diagnosis by the family physician at the expense of the County, provided the child or parent brings a slip from his teacher indicating that the teacher had observed symptoms of possible communicable disease and urged a diagnosis. The arrangement does not provide for treatment at county expense; this remains the responsibility of the parent.

PERIODIC HEALTH EXAMINATIONS AND THE CORRECTION OF DEFECTS

Health examinations for school children were originally planned as a means of detecting signs of contagious disease; later they were used to discover skin diseases and other sickness; and still later came the emphasis on the discovery of physical defects. The whole question of periodic health examination of well persons has undergone several changes, and the school's viewpoint on the examination of school children should harmonize with the best current medical viewpoints on the subject.

One of the best sources of evidence on the benefits derived from periodic examinations of presumably healthy persons comes from the material reduction in infant deaths accomplished by the supervision under medical direction of the feeding and hygiene of healthy babies from birth to two

years of age.¹⁵ During the years preceding school entrance, and for many children during their school years, some form of medical supervision of apparently healthy children has seemed justified by the number of important defects discovered, many of the defects being found in the early stages of development, and by the improvement in growth and functions of the body and the mind when such handicaps are removed. The greatest benefits from periodic health examination cannot be expected unless the policy of such a health inventory is inaugurated very early in life, preferably during the prenatal period, and continued through infancy, preschool, school and adult life. The periodic health examination thus holds the same relationship to physical growth and the maintenance of health that mental and achievement examinations have to mental and educational growth and development and to the social and educational adjustment of the child. It is not surprising, therefore, that in recent years the schools have viewed medical and dental examinations as integral parts of a comprehensive plan for the cumulative inventory of the growth of the child as a whole. At the present time emphasis is being placed on the health examination as an educative experience for the child and upon its values in diagnosis and prognosis in learning and development, as well as its more restricted use in solving the medical problems of the child. This change in viewpoint raises a number of questions about conventional procedures regarding the school health examination which will be discussed later.

There is considerable unanimity of opinion among informed persons that school-age children should have periodic health examinations and that the school should assume responsibility for promoting such examinations. The recommended frequency of health examinations is set forth by the Second National Conference on Physicians and Schools in the following statement: ¹⁶

During the school years students should have a minimum of four medical examinations, one at the time of entrance to school, one in the intermediate grades, one at the beginning of adolescence and one before leaving school. Pupils who have serious defects or abnormalities, who have suffered from serious or repeated illness, or who engage in vigorous athletic programs require frequent examinations. The physician is the best judge of the need for repeated examinations and of the frequency with which they should be given. Additional examinations, even annual examinations, may be arranged if money, time and personnel permit, but the quality of medical procedures and judgment should not be sacrificed to a desire for frequent and complete coverage of the entire school.

Although most authorities are agreed that the school should assume responsibility for seeing to it that pupils have periodic health examina-

¹⁵ American Medical Association, *Periodic Health Examination: A Manual for Physicians*, 2d rev. ed. (Chicago, the Association, 1940), p. 17.

¹⁶ American Medical Association, *Second National Conference on Physicians and Schools*, Conference Report (Chicago, the Association, October, 1949).

tions, there is not so much agreement on the issue as to who should finance the examination program and employ the personnel to do them. Some believe that the board of education should employ enough school physicians to conduct all the examinations; others believe that the city or county health department should provide the staff for the examination of school children; whereas still others insist that the examination should be made by the private physician chosen by the family and at the expense of the individual family.

Each of the three plans described above has enough argument in favor of it, as well as against it, so that a clear-cut conclusion is difficult. School health services operated by the schools as well as those operated by the public health agency break down rather hopelessly at the point of thorough medical diagnosis and remedial treatment unless there is a large enough staff to carry through on the follow-up work on the defects discovered in the screening examinations. The real root of the whole problem is adequate parent education and in-service education of physicians so that they can render a worthwhile service when called on by parents to examine apparently healthy children. These latter phases of the problem are seldom recognized or attacked in the typical community. Perhaps there ought not to be a national policy on the administrative arrangements whereby health examinations are provided for school children. It is important, however, that all children have a periodic health examination and that the school obtain from such examinations the data it needs for its cumulative developmental records on the whole child. No doubt this end result can be achieved by any one of several plans.

Enough research evidence has now accumulated to warrant a careful scrutiny of past practices regarding medical and dental services for school children. At the beginning of extended school health services, and in many schools at the present time, the objective was to give each child a physical examination each year. Except for the rare school that could afford a very extensive health staff, this ambitious program of one examination per child per year resulted in the giving of many hurried examinations; sometimes more than 50 children were seen by the physician in one hour. Physicians, nurses, teachers, and clerks were busy filling out records which were filed in the principal's office and not looked at by anyone until examination time the following year; even the physician and the nurse were too busy completing the rounds of the schools making examinations and filling out more cards to have time to analyze the records already on file and to follow up the cases for whom defects were revealed. Correction of defects, one of the chief objectives of the health examination, thus fell by the boards, and the same defects appeared year after year in the annual examination and were recorded again and again. Teachers usually did not have ready access to the examination results, could not understand the abbreviated notations if they did have access to the records,

and probably would have been justified in questioning the validity of data gathered through such hurried procedures. The net result of the entire program was questionable.¹⁷

Research done during the past 20 years has had considerable influence in changing thought and practice regarding health examinations and the appropriate use of health personnel employed by the schools. Instead of examining all children each year or at regular intervals, the number of school examinations should be adjusted to whatever number can be served well by the available staff. This means that the number examined should not exceed the number for whom adequate follow-up can be done to insure correction of defects. The ideal, of course, is to have all children have a periodic health examination in accordance to the schedule outlined in a preceding paragraph, but when the ideal cannot be reached, quality should have priority over quantity. Each examination should be conducted in accordance with standards established by the American Medical Association.¹⁸ Examinations given at school should be done by qualified physicians who, when paid by the board of education, should be employed on an hourly basis rather than on a per-capita fee basis. The compensation should be adequate to attract capable individuals who have a real interest in school and child health.

At present the emphasis is being placed on the health examination as an educative experience, and for its diagnostic and prognostic value in learning and development, as well as its more restricted use in solving the medical problems of the child. This emphasis presupposes that the health examination will be an experience in its natural community setting; that parents will be present at the examination; and that the physician will have the time for a normal physician-patient relationship to explain his findings to parents or guardian and the pupils in treatment, and to the school in guiding the determination of certain "readinesses" and certain experiential needs of the child. Whenever possible the examination should be made by the family physician in his office, with an appropriate report on a regulation form submitted to the school.

Generalizations to guide school policy on health examinations and remedial care which have developed out of recent research and the trend of present practice are summarized in the following statements. Medical, public-health, and educational authorities agree that school children should have periodic health examinations. These same authorities are agreed that dental examinations should be given at least once a year. All entering school children should have a medical examination; thereafter each child

¹⁷ Winslow, *op. cit.*, Ch. 6; *Physical Defects: The Pathway to Correction* (New York, American Child Health Association, 1934); D. B. Nyswander, *Solving School Health Problems* (New York, The Commonwealth Fund, 1942).

¹⁸ *Periodic Health Examination: A Manual for Physicians, op. cit.*; N.E.A. and A.M.A., Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education, *Health Appraisal of School Children* (Washington, N.E.A., 1948).

should be checked two or three times during his school career, including the high school. Children who show observable symptoms should be examined at any time that need is indicated. Since the school health examination is a screening test, every effort should be made to have the responsibility for periodic health examinations assumed by parents and the family physician, the school thus concentrating on those pupils not otherwise served. The scope of the school examination program should be geared to the capacity of the staff (teachers, nurses, and physicians) for effective follow-up work to assure correction of defects. The general consensus of opinion is that the school should not assume financial responsibility for remedial treatment, except in emergency cases occurring in school. Since parents are expected to carry the responsibility for corrective treatment (whether financed by the parents or by a welfare agency), it is important that the school examination program be arranged so that parents can be present at the examination. It is better for the school to examine fewer pupils and to provide more careful and more thorough-going examinations than to examine hurriedly a larger number of pupils. Teachers can serve effectively, especially if in conference with the nurse, in selecting cases to be examined by the physician. In all cases the examination should be conducted so as to exploit its educational values for the child, the parent, and the teacher. Regardless of what plan is used to finance and administer the school health services, adequate arrangements should be made so that the school receives a report of such of the findings as are pertinent for the school to have in guiding the growth and development of the child. Teachers' daily observation of children and periodic weighing and measuring of children by the teacher are indispensable phases of the program. The need for adequate cumulative records on each child seems too obvious to require further comment at this point.

SCREENING TESTS TO DETERMINE CONDITIONS OF VISION AND HEARING

Defective vision is found in from 5 to 15 per cent of school children. The American Child Health Association study found 14 per cent of the children reaching the fifth or sixth grade with severe vision defects, only about half of whom were wearing glasses.¹⁹ In Philadelphia in 1945-1946, 12.7 per cent of elementary- and secondary-school pupils had defective vision (20/30 or worse) and 1.3 per cent had strabismus.²⁰ The school's concern about children's vision is set forth clearly in the following terms:²¹

¹⁹ *Physical Defects: The Pathway to Correction*, op. cit., p. 19.

²⁰ *The School Child: Health Progress and Needs* (New York, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co.)

²¹ N.E.A. and A.M.A., Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education, *Health Education*, 4th ed. (Washington, N.E.A., 1948), p. 88.

The early discovery and correction of marked differences in visual acuity in the two eyes so that no child, thru neglect of this condition, may suffer needlessly the embarrassment of crosseye or the subsequent loss of vision in the unused eye.

The early discovery and correction of farsightedness in all cases where the defect results in strain in close eye work.

The early discovery and correction of nearsightedness so that no child, because of a limited range of vision, shall be deprived of an opportunity for free and active play with his contemporaries.

The early discovery and correction of astigmatism so that the child may be spared the nervous strain attending vain attempts to surmount obstacles over which he has little control.

The early discovery of children who, because of low vision or progressive eye conditions, cannot use ordinary school material with profit or with safety to themselves, and a provision for getting such children under appropriate medical care, and into a sight-saving class when necessary.

How frequently should screening tests for vision be given? What method should be used? Who should give the tests? What should be the nature of the follow-up work for pupils found to have serious vision defects? These are the most pertinent questions confronting a school faculty. Most authorities agree that children's vision should be tested at least at the beginning of each school year, preferably at the beginning of each semester. In most schools, due to the large number of pupils that should be tested and the inadequate specialized health staff available, the responsibility for periodic vision testing falls upon the classroom teacher. From certain standpoints, this is a wholesome necessity. It requires the teacher to be an active participant in studying and protecting children's vision and provides greater opportunity to make a genuine educational experience out of the testing procedure.

Several vision screening tests are available for schools to use. These consist of the Snellen Charts, the Massachusetts Vision Test, and the Keystone Telebinocular Test. The Snellen Test consists of two charts, the Letter chart and the Symbol E chart, either one or both of which may be used. The Symbol E chart is best for young children who do not yet know the letters of the alphabet. The Letter chart is suitable for all children who know the letters.²² The Massachusetts Vision Test involves the use of a testing frame, a convex lens, and so-called "Maddox rod." Its use as a screening device has been approved by the Council on Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation of the American Medical Association. The telebinocular test consists of a battery of procedures making use of a stereoscopic instrument. It is designed to detect astigmatism, ocular muscle balance

²² Complete directions for giving the Snellen tests may be found in George M. Wheatley and Grace T. Hallock, *Health Observation of School Children* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1951), pp. 369-374; and in Delbert Oberteuffer, *School Health Education* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1949), pp. 294-295.

(fusion), and errors of refraction. Equipment for the latter test is considerably more expensive than the cost of the other two methods.

The problem in screening tests for vision has always been that of finding a simple device that was not too time-consuming to use and which would be reasonably accurate in selecting those pupils who should be referred to a qualified eye doctor for a more exacting examination. The method of vision screening used by the school should also be comparatively inexpensive as far as equipment is concerned so that it would be accessible to all schools; and its use should be sufficiently uncomplicated so that all classroom teachers can learn to use it accurately without engaging in unduly long training periods. These several factors place important restrictions upon the final selection of a vision screening method.

Research in the development and appraisal of a suitable vision screening test has gone on for years.²³ The chief problem is to identify all pupils in need of careful attention to their vision and at the same time to be sure that none is overlooked who has vision difficulties. Any device which fails to identify a high percentage of pupils in need of attention or which selects for referral many pupils who do not have vision difficulties is not very useful. The findings of the most recently reported study by Shaffer corroborate, in the main, the results of earlier studies.²⁴ Shaffer reported that the Keystone Telebinocular, when the entire battery of tests is used, has a much higher over-referral rate than the Snellen Test and is not significantly more accurate in finding cases in need of referral. The results of the Massachusetts Vision Test seem too low for use as a screening test in school in selecting cases in need of referral as well as in the margin of over-referral. Shaffer concluded that the Symbol E Chart, Snellen Scale, when used at 20 feet and with proper illumination as a test of visual acuity, is the most reliable single screening procedure for school use. In accepting this recommendation one must remember that the Snellen Test is in no sense an eye examination. It does not test the coordination of both eyes working together; nor does it test for astigmatism or color blindness. It is merely a screening device for selecting those pupils who should be encouraged to have a complete eye examination by qualified practitioners.

²³ E. W. Mumford, "Digest of Problems of Vision Testing for Screening Purposes," *Sight-Saving Review*, Vol. 11 (March-June, 1941), pp. 40-53, 136-149; G. Cole, "Critical Analysis of the Results of the Betts Telebinocular Tests," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 41 (March, 1941), pp. 533-537; G. Spache, "Comparative Study of Three Tests of Visual Acuity," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 24 (April, 1940), pp. 207-212; Lura Oak, "Appraisal of the Betts Visual Sensation and Perception Tests as a Sorting Device for Use in Schools," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 30 (April, 1939), pp. 241-250; "Massachusetts Vision Test: An Improved Method for School Vision Testing," *American Journal of Public Health*, Vol. 32 (October, 1942), pp. 1105-1109; T. H. Eames, "When A Child Fails the School Vision Test," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 43 (April, 1943), pp. 478-480; Thomas E. Shaffer, "Study of Vision Testing Procedures," *American Journal of Public Health*, Vol. 38 (August, 1948), pp. 1141-1146.

²⁴ Shaffer, *op. cit.*

Recent research findings and the trend of practice regarding screening tests for hearing defects are similar to those described for vision-testing. Testing of children's hearing should be done at least once a year by the classroom teacher. The teacher's procedure is definitely one of screening out the pupils who should have a more searching diagnosis by a qualified physician. Usually from 1 to 4 per cent of school children have defective hearing. The "whisper test" is most commonly used; the limitations are known by most school workers. The most objective and practical method of testing the hearing of a group of children is the 4-A audiometer. Individual tests can be given with the 2-A audiometer. The cost of an audiometer is such that usually only the larger schools feel that they can afford one of them. Under usual classroom conditions the accuracy of the 4-A audiometer has been questioned, correlations between repeated tests on the same group of children ranging from .20 to .80. Only in a sound-proof room is it possible to obtain adequate measurement of hearing sensitivity. Since most school situations do not provide sound-proof rooms, and since no one of the devices accessible to teachers for testing children's hearing is especially superior to any other, the "whisper test," if carefully conducted, is probably the most practical for the present time.

SAFETY PRACTICES

Protection and promotion of children's health applies very fittingly to safety practices. The school is concerned with the protection of children against all types of accidents; it is also concerned with the development in children of habits, attitudes, and knowledges which will serve children, individually and collectively, in the guidance of conduct during childhood and in adult life so that living may be as safe as possible in all walks of life and in the many life situations in which the individual finds himself. For both sexes accidents ranked fourth among all causes of death in 1948; among males accidents ranked third while among females accidents ranked fifth as a cause of death. In 1948 the accidental death rate by age groups was:

0 to 4 years of age—	54.9 per 100,000 population
5 to 14 years of age—	24.4 per 100,000 population
15 to 24 years of age—	55.9 per 100,000 population
25 to 44 years of age—	46.9 per 100,000 population
45 to 64 years of age—	66.2 per 100,000 population
65 years and over	—282.2 per 100,000 population

There were 10,400,000 accidental injuries of varying degrees of severity in 1948. Of this total, 98,000 resulted in death, about 9,900,000 resulted in temporary disability which in all cases extended beyond one day, but in many of them the person was disabled for only a few days, and about 370,000 left the person with some type of permanent impairment, ranging

from the loss of part of a finger to total and permanent crippling. Motor-vehicle accidents, numbering 32,000, headed the list of types in 1948, as they have done for the past 20 years except for 1943 and 1944. The second most frequent cause was falls, with a death toll of 27,600. Burns comprised the third most important type of fatal accidents, with a 1948 death toll of 8600. Deaths from drowning, railroad accidents (including collision with motor vehicles at grade crossings), firearms, and poisons ranked fourth, fifth, and sixth, respectively, as causes of accidental deaths.

Accidents seem to have no respect for time, persons, or places. In 1948 about 35,000 accidental deaths occurred in and around the home. Others occurred in public places, in travel, on the farms, and at schools. Accidents at schools are of many kinds. Many injuries have resulted from falls into holes in the classroom floor or in the school yard, or in falling over low or inadequately planned banisters. In some cases pupils have been injured by falling objects, such as ceilings, archways, or flagpoles. Sometimes icy walks and playgrounds cause injuries. Some children are hurt swinging on yard gates or trip over wires stretched across the school grounds or in climbing wire fences. Oiled floors, worn steps, poor seats, playgrounds with protruding objects, faulty fire ladders, or fire escapes, doors without checks, doors opening directly upon roadways, and bleachers without guardrails have been the causes of many injuries to pupils and teachers. Improper or faulty playground equipment or improper use of equipment may cause accidents. Classroom equipment, especially power-driven saws and planes, may produce hazards. Crossing streets on the way to and from school, riding in buses or private automobiles while on field trips are also situations wherein pupil safety must be carefully observed. Fire hazards and air-raid precautions are also in the picture.

Among children 5 to 14 years of age there were 5800 accidental deaths in 1948. Forty per cent of these were the result of motor-vehicle accidents. Fifty-one per cent of the motor-vehicle fatalities among this age group were due to pedestrian accidents and 15 per cent resulted from collisions between bicycles and motor vehicles. Sixty-seven per cent of all injured cyclists and 30 per cent of all injured pedestrians were in the 5 to 14 age group. About 47 per cent of all school-jurisdiction accidents happened inside the school building. Among the in-building accidents, 38 per cent occurred in the gymnasium, 17 per cent in halls and on stairways, 16 per cent in classrooms, 12 per cent in shops, and 17 per cent in other places. Among the accidents on the school grounds, 43 per cent happened in unorganized (and usually less supervised) activities, 21 per cent in football, 12 per cent in baseball, 15 per cent in other organized activities, and 9 per cent in the use of apparatus. If the statistics are confined to children in the kindergarten and the first six grades, the school-jurisdiction accidents are distributed as follows: in-building accidents constitute from 22.1 per cent in Grade 2 to 43.3 per cent in the kindergarten of all school

accidents; accidents on the school grounds range from 31.1 per cent in the kindergarten to 57.6 per cent in the second grade; while accidents occurring in going to and from school range from 13.8 per cent in the sixth grade to 27.2 per cent in the first grade.²⁵

The liability of the school board and that of individual teachers in the event of accident is a matter of major concern. The prevailing principle of law in the United States is that a school district is not, in the absence of a statute, subject to liability for injuries suffered by pupils or others during and in their attendance upon school. The general common-law rule states that a school district is not liable for injuries *unless it consents*.²⁶ Only the state can consent to suit against school districts. A number of states, notably California, Washington, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, have passed legislation permitting such liability. The character of the laws and the degree of liability permitted varies from state to state. Teachers and principals in each state should be thoroughly familiar with the laws in the state in which they teach. School district trustees, in general and in the absence of evidence of bad faith or improper motives, cannot be held personally liable for the negligent performance of the duties imposed upon them in their corporate capacity, nor can they be held personally liable for the negligence of employees of the school district. Teachers, principals, and other school employees, however, are required to operate in a careful fashion consistent with reasonable standards of prudence required of all people in civil life and may be subjected to suits for the recovery of damages occasioned by their negligence.²⁷

The reasons for safety education in the schools are succinctly stated in the following quotation: ²⁸

The reaction of administrators generally indicates that safety education is already accepted in the minds of school people and by the public as a proper and necessary part of the work of the schools. There is the soundest reason for this. Any integral part of the activities of the community should have a place in the school program. It is the responsibility of the school to contribute as largely as it can to happy and useful living. If we define our work as preparing children to do better those things which they will do anyway, we had better help them to plan their accomplishment free from destructive encounters with pails of scalding water, high tension wires, onrushing automobiles, and unwary pedestrians.

²⁵ All of the preceding accident facts were taken from *Accident Facts 1949 Edition* (Chicago, National Safety Council, 1949).

²⁶ For illustrations of the kinds of accidents which have been the occasion for law suits, see: R. N. Rosenfield, *Liability for School Accidents* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1940); M. M. Chambers, ed., *The Ninth Yearbook of School Law* (Washington, American Council on Education, 1941), Ch. VIII; Madaline K. Remmlein, *School Law* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1950), Chs. 8 and 15.

²⁷ Rosenfield, *op. cit.*, p. 46.

²⁸ *Safety Education*, Eighteenth Yearbook (Washington, American Association of School Administrators, 1940), p. 44.

Today's general point of view on safety education is well summarized in the set of principles prepared by the committee of the American Association of School Administrators: ²⁹

1. Experience shows that many accidents are preventable thru a program of education.
2. Instruction in safety is an essential part of the modern school's program of producing good citizens.
3. The determination of the character and the extent of the school safety program and the selection of teaching methods to be used are professional responsibilities of educators.
4. Rural schools, operating under numerous conditions specifically different from those of urban schools, should make an effort to adjust their safety programs to the special conditions of their environment.
5. Safety education for adults is a primary responsibility of the community and the state.
6. In each community it is the responsibility of the board of education and its executive staff to build and to maintain school buildings which are safe.
7. Responsibility for areas of safety education not designated specifically by law should be assigned by agreement to the agency or agencies most competent to achieve the desired goal.
8. Teaching youth to be safe and intelligent operators of motor cars is a responsibility of the community.
9. The school has a responsibility for systematic instruction in all aspects of safety.
10. School systems embracing several schools should organize safety coordinating agencies.
11. A formal or informal safety council or committee, or other liaison among safety agencies, should be established in every community.
12. In their efforts to advance the safety movement educators should recognize the need for appraisal and research.
13. It is remarkable how much can be accomplished if no one is too anxious about who receives credit.
14. Effective programs of safety education should be adequately financed.
15. The time has come for educators to prepare themselves for leadership in safety education.

Schools can well be proud of their safety efforts and of the contributions they have made toward this major problem of our present culture. Since 1922, the year which marked the introduction of school safety education on a national scale, fatal accidents in automobiles among children 5 to 14 years of age have decreased more than 30 per cent. Twenty-five years ago there was nowhere to be seen in this country so splendid an example of positive regard for law as is today manifested by young people in their service and obedience to school traffic patrols. Detailed suggestions for

²⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 356-361.

the organization and operation of school safety councils and school traffic patrols have been published in several sources.³⁰

An unusually fine statement of the objectives of safety education in the elementary school was published by the American Association of School Administrators. It reads as follows:³¹

1. To help children recognize situations involving hazards.
2. To develop habits of conduct which will enable children to meet situations of daily life with as little danger as possible to themselves and others.
3. To develop habits of carefulness and obedience to safety rules at home, on the streets, in school, or at play.
4. To teach children to read, understand, and obey safety rules and regulations.
5. To teach children safe conduct in the use of streetcars, private automobiles, and buses.
6. To develop habits of orderliness, and carefulness in the use of playthings, tools, common articles of the home and school, and in the use of fire.
7. To develop alertness, agility, and muscular control thru rhythmic exercises, play, games, and other physical activities.
8. To teach children to cooperate to prevent accidents and the taking of unnecessary risks involving physical dangers.
9. To develop wholesome attitudes concerning: (a) law and law enforcement officers; (b) the safety of themselves and others; and (c) organized efforts to assure safety for all.
10. To give children actual experiences in desirable safety practices.

Organization for an effective program in safety is a complex problem. The plans in each school must be adjusted to the system-wide organization for safety education, the amount and type of cooperation available from the local police, the conditions and facilities of the particular school, and the circumstances prevailing in the neighborhood of the school. Usually the P.T.A. is eager and active in working with the school staff in developing good safety practices. In the Casis School in Austin, Texas, the P.T.A. committee on safety developed a five-page mimeographed bulletin (a manual on safety) for parents. This bulletin was presented at a P.T.A. meeting devoted to safety and copies were sent to all the homes of parents who could not attend the meeting. The bulletin told parents that 40 per cent of the pupils are brought to and from school in private cars, 30.5 per cent ride the city bus, 19.5 per cent walk, and 10 per cent ride bicycles.

³⁰ Those who desire full details on the organization and management of safety patrols may secure free bulletins from: (a) The American Automobile Association, Washington, D. C.; (b) The National Safety Council, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, Illinois; (c) The Department of Public Safety, the State Highway Patrol, or the State Department of Education in your own state or the Police Department in your own community.

³¹ *Safety Education*, *op. cit.*, p. 67.

The large number of pupils coming and going in private automobiles (nearly 300 out of an enrollment of 745) created a traffic problem in front of the school for the drivers, the pupils getting out of or into private cars, the bicycle riders, and for those who walked along streets which had not yet been bordered with sidewalks. The P.T.A. bulletin outlined specific rules of procedure for the drivers of automobiles, the cyclists, the bus riders, and the walkers. The bulletin also informed the parents about the safety patrol, fire prevention in school and home, and playground safety. This is merely one sample of hundreds that could be found which portray the adjustment of the safety program to local circumstances and the role of parents in an effective safety program.

Fire prevention and fire prevention education constitute a special phase of the safety program. The National Fire Protection Association published an analysis of 1000 typical school fires that occurred during the 12-year period from 1928 through 1939.³² Two hundred eighty-seven of the 1000 school fires involved elementary schools. School fires of all types during this 12-year period numbered 436 in New York City, 115 in Philadelphia, and 90 in Boston. The five most frequent causes of school fires, in order of frequency, were: electrical causes; smoking and matches; incendiary, defective or overhead heating equipment; and spontaneous ignition. Fire prevention program objectives have been set forth as follows:³³

The objectives of fire-prevention instruction are included in those of the general school curriculum. They are concerned with the maintenance of a safe school environment and with the development of knowledge, skills, and attitudes which will enable the pupils to act safely under fire-hazardous conditions. These objectives may be stated specifically as follows:

1. To reduce to a minimum the fire hazards both in the physical environment and in pupil activities within the school and community
2. In case of fire, to insure the safety of all persons in the school building
3. To reduce to a minimum the possibility of panic and the subsequent ill effects in the event of fire
4. To take precautions to insure minimum loss to the physical plant.

Aerial warfare has created a new hazard unknown to schools prior to 1940. Shortly after the onset of World War II the resources of the country were mobilized to give children as much protection as possible against bombing by airplane. Guides and instructions to teachers and principals were issued.³⁴ Protection against air raids required careful plans and many

³² *1000 School Fires* (Boston, National Fire Protection Association, 1939). In 1116 school fires between 1930 and 1945, 384 persons lost their lives; 337 of these were students. For details, see the National Fire Protection Association's *School Fires*, 60 Batterymarch Street, Boston, Mass.

³³ C. C. Hawkins, *Fire Prevention Education* (New York, National Board of Fire Underwriters, 1942), pp. 19-20.

³⁴ *Checklist for School Safety in Wartime* (Washington, N.E.A., 1943); *Protection of Schools and School Children* (Washington, Office of Civilian Defense, 1942).

practice periods to give children as calm security as possible and to develop well-informed habits of conduct which would militate against panic in the event of an actual air raid. The increased danger of atomic bombs has intensified and modified the methods of seeking protection in the event of an air raid.³⁵

FIRST AID

Closely associated with the safety program is the question of first aid to persons suffering from acute emergency illness or injury. First aid, as the term applies, should be immediate aid and *should include nothing more*. The general policy which schools follow in relation to sudden illness or accidental injury is that the school is responsible for the emergency handling of these situations but is not responsible for subsequent treatment. The Educational Policies Commission, while advising against having the schools assume responsibility for medical diagnosis and treatment, made this comment about emergency care:³⁶

There are times and circumstances, however, when human considerations outweigh legal technicalities. No one would deny the right or propriety of having a school physician take such steps as might be necessary in an emergency at the school. Emergency care in case of accident or sudden sickness should be provided on the basis of definite written instructions. Such instructions should recognize that schools have responsibility for giving immediate first aid, notifying parents, getting the child home, and guiding parents, whenever necessary, in securing further treatment. Instructions should also emphasize the fact that teachers are not physicians and should recognize definite limitations in rendering emergency assistance. Some school worker with knowledge of first aid procedure should be at the school during school hours and present at all school supervised activities.

With reference to first-aid treatment by the schools, Rosenfield prepared the following summary statement from his analysis of laws and court cases:³⁷

Therefore, it very clearly appears that school officials have the duty to render first aid and the duty *not* to render anything more than first aid. It is clear also that the scope of treatment must necessarily vary with the person who is rendering the treatment. The extent and skill of treatment required of a teacher who

³⁵ Civil Defense Office, *Survival Under Atomic Attack* (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1950); Richard Gerstell, *How to Survive an Atomic Bomb* (New York, Rinehart and Co., 1950); Federal Civil Defense Administration, *Civil Defense in Schools*, TM-16-1 (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1952); Federal Civil Defense Administration, *Interim Civil Defense Instructions for Schools and Colleges*, TEB-3-1 (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1951); National Commission on Safety Education and the Research Division of the N.E.A., *Civil Defense Plans for School Systems* (Washington, the Association, 1951).

³⁶ Educational Policies Commission of the N.E.A. and the American Association of School Administrators, *Social Services and the Schools* (Washington, the Association, 1939), p. 78.

³⁷ Rosenfield, *op. cit.*, pp. 83-84.

happens also to be a doctor is, therefore, far greater than that required of a teacher without any medical training. Furthermore, the treatment itself must be only that which a layman can be expected to render. A lay teacher cannot and should not attempt to render anything more than the merest emergency treatment. For instance, a teacher should not continue to dress a wound over a period of time. That is not an emergency. First aid refers only to *emergency* treatment. All other treatment must be rendered by competent and trained physicians.

Sudden illness or accidental injury is sure to occur from time to time in any school. Each school, therefore, should be equipped with a first-aid kit with the proper contents and at least one person on the school staff who has had specific training in first-aid procedure. It would be highly desirable if every teacher could have completed a minimum course such as that provided by the American Red Cross or the Boy Scouts of America.³⁸ An outline of first-aid supplies and how to use them has been prepared by the American Medical Association.³⁹

THE SCHOOL LUNCH

Most schools have some children who do not go home for the noon meal or who are in need of supplemental feeding, such as is done through the mid-morning lunch of milk, crackers, or fruit juice. It is only within very recent years that schools have taken a specific interest in the meals children eat during the school day on school premises. Some children, especially those in rural areas and those traveling long distances in cities to centralized schools (mostly secondary) have always brought their noon lunches with them from home or have eaten them in school cafeterias or near-by public eating houses. It is somewhat surprising that education was so slow in recognizing the many ways in which constructive school-lunch programs could contribute to the health, development, and education of children.

The school's interest in the school lunch centers around the relationship between eating and the child's health and growth, and the ways in which the school lunch can be used in the health instruction program. If the school has a genuine concern for children's physical growth and for the relation which normal physical growth has to mental hygiene, personality development, and educational progress, the school should assume an extensive interest in meals children eat during the school day and in the

³⁸ American National Red Cross, *Red Cross First Aid, Textbook*, rev. ed. (Philadelphia, Blakiston Co., 1945); American National Red Cross, *Life Saving and Water Safety* (Philadelphia, Blakiston Co., 1937); Donald B. Armstrong and G. T. Hallock, *What to Do Till the Doctor Comes* (New York, Simon and Schuster, 1943); Walter F. Cobb, *Everyday First Aid* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937); Norman B. Cobb, *First Aid for Boys*, 2d ed. (New York, Boy Scouts of America, 1942); Eldridge L. Eliason, *First Aid in Emergencies*, 12th ed. (Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott Co., 1948).

³⁹ Quoted in *Health in Schools*, *op. cit.*, pp. 394-395.

education of children and parents regarding modern nutrition. It is in the latter, the educational, connection that the school lunch program can make its other significant contribution.

There is probably a greater gulf between the theory and practice of health in the operation of the lunchroom than in any other area of school practice. Pupils are taught to eat with clean hands, but when the lunch hour comes they line up hurriedly at the lunch counter with dirty hands because they have neither the time nor the inclination to wash. In many instances the hand-washing facilities in the school are so inadequate that even the teacher cannot wash her hands. The textbooks in health show attractive pictures of fresh vegetables and fruits, but the child's lunch pail contains a doughnut and some white bread. The value of fruit, vegetables, and whole-grain cereals is preached in the classroom, but out in the hall is a candy as well as a soft-drink machine. At many elementary schools in the country today one can find children eating their lunches out of paper bags in parked automobiles, under trees, in wash rooms, and in public places with questionable surroundings. Many children have greater need for a good breakfast than they have for instruction in school subjects.

The idea of a lunch prepared and served at school really began in rural schools as a way of supplementing with a hot dish (either soup or hot chocolate) the cold lunches brought from home by the children. During the depression years of the early 1930's school-lunch programs were initiated in many other schools through the aid of the Works Progress Administration and the Surplus Commodities Administration of the Federal Government. Under Section 32, Public Law No. 320, approved August 24, 1935, schools became eligible to receive surplus commodities from the Federal Government for use in school-lunch programs. This plan was continued until 1943 when wartime supply problems brought about a shift to cash reimbursements to participating schools on the basis of the number of meals served. Since 1943 most of the food served has been purchased locally even though the distribution of federally purchased commodities has continued and has been an important factor, particularly in postwar years. Section 32 of Public Law No. 320 was later amended to authorize the continuation of purchase and distribution of foods under surplus removal programs as one method of encouraging the consumption of agricultural commodities. In 1940 the school-milk program popularly known as "penny milk," was initiated to expand markets for milk.

In June, 1946, Congress passed the National School Lunch Act (Public Law No. 396) which established the Federal Government's participation in the school-lunch program on a permanent basis. This act provides for an annual appropriation to be used in two ways. Cash grants are made to state agencies responsible for administering the programs in the several states. The cash grants are reimbursements for lunches served in participating schools. In addition, Section 6 of the Act permits the use of part

of the annual appropriation for bulk food purchases by the U. S. Department of Agriculture and the distribution of this food to participating schools. Subsequent legislation (Agricultural Act of 1949, Public Law No. 439, October 31, 1949) provides that commodities acquired by the Commodity Credit Corporation under its loan and direct purchase programs, and which are in danger of deterioration, may be distributed to various designated types of agencies, including the schools. Recipient agencies must pay the freight for these commodities from the point of storage. A portion of the 1949 potato crop was disposed in the latter fashion under Public Law No. 471 (passed by Congress on March 31, 1950).

The preceding historical sketch indicates that the Federal Government first entered the school-lunch business in the early 1930's as a way of stimulating economic recovery by providing employment for the non-employed, by providing a market for surplus commodities, and by getting available food to hungry children. As circumstances changed during the intervening years, the Federal Government's interest has changed somewhat. The nature of legislation currently in vogue makes it clear that the Federal Government is concerned with children's health and nutrition, the stimulation of commodity consumption, and the stabilization of the production and marketing of farm products.

Organized school-lunch programs now exist in the majority of city and consolidated rural schools and in many of the smaller rural schools. In the one- and two-teacher rural schools the "hot dish" supplement is likely to be the more common pattern. The number of schools participating in the Federal School Lunch Program has increased from 29,641 in 1944 to 53,461 in 1952. The number of students in the participating schools increased from 3,704,597 to 9,028,970 during the same period. In 1952, 32.1 per cent of all schools were participants in the Federal program. During the fiscal year 1951 the participating schools spent \$207,145,904 locally for food, while Federal assistance in cash and cost of commodities totaled \$112,510,000.⁴⁰

The Federal Government's interest in the health and growth of school-age children caused the Congress to stipulate in the National School Lunch Act that ⁴¹

lunches served by schools participating in the school-lunch program under this Act shall meet minimum nutritional requirements prescribed by the Secretary on the basis of tested nutritional research. Such meals shall be served without cost or at a reduced cost to children who are determined by local school authorities to be unable to pay the full cost of the lunch. No physical segregation

⁴⁰ U. S. Department of Agriculture, Production and Marketing Administration. Food Distribution Branch, *Supplement to School Lunch and Food Distribution Programs, Selected Statistics, Fiscal Years 1939-50, Revised and Extended to Include Fiscal Year 1951.*

⁴¹ Public Law 396—79th Congress, Chapter 281—2nd Session, H. R. 3370.

of or other discrimination against any child shall be made by the school because of his inability to pay. School-lunch programs under this Act shall be operated on a nonprofit basis.

The Type A lunch recommended in the Federal program is a complete lunch with milk which provides the child with at least one-third of his daily nutritional requirements. Federal participation in the school-lunch program has been a definite factor in improving the quality of school-lunch programs. Chart 7 shows the comparative nutritional composition of the most frequently selected lunches in non-program schools and the Type A lunch recommended for participating schools. The school-lunch program can now be said to have been generally accepted as an important

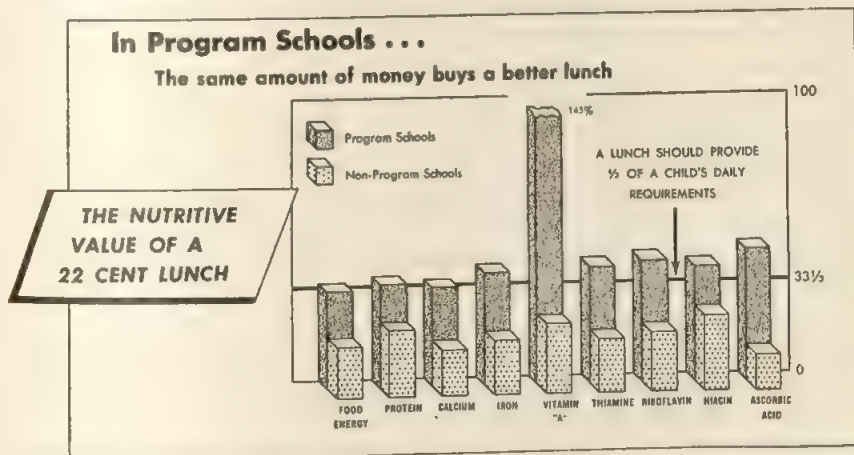


CHART 7: Comparative nutritional value of Type A lunch and the most frequently selected lunch in schools not participating in the federal school lunch program. Although 22 per cent of the children in these non-program schools purchased a complete lunch at an average cost of 40 cents, the most frequently selected lunch in these schools cost 22 cents—the same price as the complete (Type A) lunch in program schools. Reproduced from U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, Production and Marketing Administration, *The National School Lunch Program: A Progress Report*, PA-208, June, 1952, p. 11.

phase of the school's health and educational program. In the immediate future much attention should be given toward the improvement of the procedures and uses made of the feeding of children at school. A number of excellent bulletins outlining procedures and standards have already been published. Some schools are developing the school lunch and the lunchroom as a true laboratory in which the theoretical and the practical can be brought together on such topics as food selection and preparation, nutrition, practices of personal hygiene, food habits, table manners, food handling, food storage, refrigeration, milk pasteurization, waste disposal, fly control, examination of food handlers, and such other problems as are associated with the maintenance of proper standards in the operation of public or private eating places. The lunchroom thus becomes the natural

laboratory for much of the program of health instruction at the same time that it makes a major contribution to children's normal physical growth and maintenance of health.

During recent years various studies have sought to discover what relationships there may be between children's health, absenteeism, school progress and children's nutrition in general and school-lunch programs in particular. The importance of a good breakfast was shown by the fact that children who skipped breakfast were observed to have decreased work output and decreased mental acuity during morning hours.⁴² A positive relationship was found between poor diets, school absences, and failure to complete the grade.⁴³ Colds, nervousness, irritability, listlessness, and fatigue had a high incidence among children with poor diets. Achievement tests given before and after the institution of free lunches showed an increase in scores; teachers claimed that teaching was easier.⁴⁴ In one study it was found that children who ate a hot lunch regularly at school gained 37 per cent more in weight than those who did not participate in the lunch program; the children who ate a hot lunch at school missed 68 per cent fewer days of school than those who did not participate.⁴⁵ In one situation it was found that families were buying more green and leafy vegetables, citrus fruits, milk, eggs, and other protein foods after the school-lunch program was inaugurated.⁴⁶ A pilot study of the nutrition of children as affected by school lunches revealed that there was no distinguishable difference in hemoglobin but that the blood value of ascorbic acid was higher for children having lunches at school; children who had lunches at school had better diets than those who did not eat at school, the diet of the former group being especially better in calcium, Vitamin C, and Vitamin A content.⁴⁷

At one time it was thought desirable to have all children who possibly could do so go home for the noon meal in order to maintain as many ties with the homes as possible. It is entirely possible that this may have been a false notion. One who studies the way in which children spend the noon hour is impressed with several facts. Children hurry home, then eat a hurried lunch, and dash back to school to engage in strenuous play during

⁴² W. W. Tuttle, M. Wilson, and K. Daum, "The Effect of Altered Breakfast Habits on Physiologic Response," *Journal of Applied Physiology*, Vol. 1 (February, 1949), p. 545.

⁴³ *National Nutrition Conference for Defense, Proceedings* (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1942).

⁴⁴ Marian C. Bebe, "Hungry Kids Are Hard to Teach," *School Executive*, Vol. 68 (July, 1949), pp. 42-43.

⁴⁵ Orlan C. Fowler, "The Hot Lunch Program," *The National Elementary Principal*, Vol. 27 (December, 1947), pp. 2-4.

⁴⁶ "School Food Service Association Speakers Say School Lunch Aids General Nutrition," *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. 45 (January, 1950), p. 65.

⁴⁷ Millicent L. Hathaway, Frieda Meyer, and Sadye Adelson, "School Lunches: Their Nutritive Value and Relation to Health and Diet of Children," *American Journal of Public Health*, Vol. 40 (September, 1950), pp. 1096-1100.

the remainder of the noon hour. Those who eat at school eat hurriedly so they may engage in play. Just because a child goes home for his noon meal is no assurance that he gets a good meal or that he gets any meal at all. In poor homes and in homes in which both parents work there may be no one at home at noon to prepare a lunch. It may be worth while to explore the possibility of developing a school-lunch program for all pupils, at least a hot dish to supplement lunches brought from home. Keeping children at school at noon would not cause a serious interruption of family ties, since the time spent at home at noon is very small at best. If all children ate at school, the school could develop a broad educational program around the school lunch. The eating period could be followed by a rest period instead of vigorous play.

MENTAL HYGIENE

The modern concept of mental hygiene permeates all phases of child life and all phases of the school program. As a comparatively new development in education, mental hygiene has meant many things to many people, sometimes assuming the proportions of a special discipline to be dealt with only by persons with special training in the field. What is needed is a practical view of the everyday uses and applications of the principles of mental hygiene as they apply to the development of well-adjusted individuals and the prevention of maladjustment. The promotion of mental health finds extensive application in the school's concern for the whole child, for wholesome social adjustment and personality development, and for desirable emotional development. In a very positive and useful way mental hygiene is related to the prevention of maladjustment. Actual diagnosis and treatment of mental diseases, mental defects, and severe maladjustment belong more logically to psychology and psychiatry.

Mental hygiene is not a subject to be taught in the elementary school but rather a way of dealing with children so that the desired objectives of education may be achieved. As such, nearly every phase of school life and school management has its mental-hygiene implications. In an effort to avoid tensions, strains, stresses, unhappiness, ineffectiveness, discontent, and such other factors as militate against wholesome development, the school must examine all of its practices. Areas which call for especially careful scrutiny are the classification and promotion practices, report cards, discipline, honors and awards, competitive contests, adaptation of instruction to individual differences, pupil-teacher relationships, and the schedule of daily activities. The attitude teachers take toward individual differences among pupils and children's problems has much to do with the nature of the school's contribution to mental hygiene.

The general field of school administration and supervision has probably as much to do with the mental hygiene of the classroom as the training

and viewpoint of the teachers. Rigid course-of-study prescriptions, dictatorial supervisory practices, inadequate teachers' salaries, insecure tenure, and the absence of cooperative procedures in curriculum improvement, all have their repercussions in the way children are dealt with in school. An effective, positive mental-hygiene program must concern itself with the environmental factors and controls which constitute the framework within which teachers and pupils operate.⁴⁸

PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND RECREATION

The role of play in children's development has been described at length in so many places that further rehearsal seems unnecessary. The school's physical-education program is an official channel for providing a comprehensive array of play activities chosen carefully so that certain values will come to children in some sort of an appropriate developmental sequence. All of the recent professional books on physical education for elementary schools provide some type of arrangement of activities to insure scope and sequence. The most urgent present need is the development of an *appropriate* and *adequate* concept regarding the place and character of a modern physical-education program. Some people still think that physical education is synonymous with health education; others believe that physical education is an antidote for the cramped muscles resulting from the more serious business of the school. The various misconceptions have been aptly summarized by Salt, Fox, Douthett, and Stevens:⁴⁹

The development of modern physical education is often retarded because of the misconceptions which some people have concerning the nature and function of this phase of education. There are still too many educators and laymen who subscribe to the fact that physical education is a recess period, a necessary evil when teachers must watch children to see that there are no fights; that formal and artificial exercises provide a good substitute for play situations; that play is a waste of time; that physical education is a therapeutic agency concerned primarily with the correction of defects; that physical exercise obtained through work is a good substitute for recreation; that the primary purpose of physical education is to provide an antidote or relief from the mental tasks of the classroom; that play is an energy-release process and as such, is not a phase of education; that physical education is primarily concerned with the development

⁴⁸ Harold W. Bernard, *Mental Hygiene for Classroom Teachers* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1952); Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools*, 1950 Yearbook (Washington, N.E.A., 1950); Norman Fenton, *Mental Hygiene in School Practice* (Stanford University, Stanford University Press, 1943); National Committee for Mental Hygiene, *Mental Hygiene in the Classroom* (New York, the Committee, now the National Association for Mental Health, 1949); Metropolitan School Study Council, *The School Administrator and the Mental Health of Teachers* (New York, the Council, 1949).

⁴⁹ From *Teaching Physical Education in the Elementary School* by E. B. Salt, G. I. Fox, E. M. Douthett, and B. K. Stevens, pp. 11-12. Copyrighted 1942 by A. S. Barnes & Company, Inc.

of discipline and obedience; that health education and physical education are synonymous terms. It should be noted that these do not include all of the misconceptions regarding physical education but merely serve to illustrate the fact that there are numerous unfounded beliefs which handicap the development of modern physical education.

Physical education has some relationship to health education, to which it makes a variety of contributions, but it cannot be expected to carry the whole burden of health education, nor can health education be conceived to consist only of physical education. Physical education should be viewed broadly in terms of the contributions it makes to the development of the whole child. Play as such has a dominant role in child life and makes many contributions to the growing individual. Biologically the human organism is dependent upon vigorous muscular activity for the growth and development of the various organic systems. Certain amounts of daily physical activity encourage the proper functioning of the various organic systems, such as the digestive system. Bodily activity encourages better body tone, a sharper appetite, and thus has its relationship to food intake and body growth. Skill in physical activities aids children in maintaining status among their peers and thus contributes to social adjustment and emotional development. Games and skills learned in school may be put to wholesome use during out-of-school leisure hours. Physical education, thus viewed, becomes one of the important channels through which the school promotes the well-rounded development of the whole child.

In contrast with misconceptions formerly held, modern authorities in this field stress the child development orientation, the social, personality, and character development aspects, as well as the physical development features of the program. These several emphases are well illustrated in the 11 fundamental principles underlying the program as set forth by O'Keefe and Fahey.⁵⁰ The contributions of physical education toward specific elements in the general purposes of education were identified by Schon and associates,⁵¹ and by Brace,⁵² the latter having identified specific objectives of physical education which contribute to the attainment of 11 principles of democracy. The values currently sought through physical education are all embodied in the following condensed statement of objectives provided by the American Association of School Administrators:⁵³

1. To develop skills and coordinations which will enable the individual to use his body with ease and efficiency and to participate with satisfaction in a wide variety of physical activities.

⁵⁰ Pattric R. O'Keefe and Helen Fahey, *Education Through Physical Activities* (St. Louis, C. V. Mosby Co., 1949), pp. 17-18.

⁵¹ Elizabeth L. Schon and others, *Physical Education Methods for Elementary Schools* (Philadelphia, W. B. Saunders Co., 1948).

⁵² David K. Brace, "Education for Democracy Through Physical Education," *Education*, Vol. 70 (October, 1949), pp. 112-115.

⁵³ *Health in Schools*, rev. ed., *op. cit.*, p. 185.

2. To aid in the development of strength, endurance, and organic power.
3. To prevent fatigue by furnishing a method of relaxation from more formal types of education.
4. To contribute to personality integration and social adaptability.

Specialists in physical education recommend one or more daily periods totaling at least 30 minutes in each of the elementary grades. In the primary grades it is better to have a 15-minute period in the forenoon and another period of similar length in the afternoon. In the intermediate and upper grades a single daily period of at least 30 minutes is very satisfactory. The time set aside for physical education should be in addition to time allowed for the noon period and recess periods. Program plans should make provision for directed play, small group play, large group play, team games, rhythmic activities, stunts, pyramids, apparatus activities, and classroom games. Jack recommends that the emphasis in physical education should be distributed in accordance with the following percentages of the total time: games 40 to 45 per cent; rhythm, 20 to 25 per cent; relays, 10 per cent; story plays and mimetics, 10 to 15 per cent; tumbling and self-testing stunts, 10 per cent; and individual athletic events, 10 per cent.⁵⁴

Below the fifth grade boys and girls should not be separated for their physical-education activities. In the fifth grade and above it is common practice not to have the boys and the girls play together in the team games or in the gymnastic phases of the program. Some coeducation should take place, however, and can be achieved through rhythmic activities and group play. Some authorities recommend that the scheduled physical-education periods be handled as carefully planned instructional periods, and that the time before school in the morning, the noon period, and the time following the close of school in the afternoon be organized on a recreational basis.

Schools have become so accustomed to forenoon and afternoon recess periods and extensive and frequently vigorous play at noon following the noon lunch that the practice appears relatively immune from challenge. The fact that some experimental schools have abandoned the conventional recess periods, permitting individual pupils to attend to personal needs at any time at the pupil's request, and that a few schools and some camps have been successful in operating a rest period for everyone following the noon meal, ought to suggest the possibility of revising certain questionable and wasteful practices in public schools. Certainly school programs have passed the stage wherein recess periods were necessary to relieve the pupil from the strain, inactivity, and cramped feeling resulting from intellectual pursuits. Children's personal needs for hand-washing, drinking, and visits to the lavatory can be met in accordance with better health standards if

⁵⁴ H. K. Jack, *Physical Education for Small Elementary Schools* (New York, A. S. Barnes and Co., 1941), p. 1.

handled on an individual rather than a mass production basis. The time saved by the abandonment of the outmoded recess periods would give more than ample time for a well-conceived and well-handled program in physical education. Rest periods following the noon lunch instead of exciting play might lend further improvement to the school's effort to promote the healthy growth of children.

INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

The football bandwagon in high schools and colleges has precipitated an unfortunate and dangerous situation for elementary and junior high schools. An expanding public interest in football makes it difficult for school administrators to stem the tide of popular demand for the "scouting of talent" and the "preparatory training" which supposedly could be achieved in junior high schools and the upper grades of elementary schools. In discussing the case against interscholastic athletics in the junior high school, Mitchell had this to say: ⁵⁵

There is no need to present the case *for* interscholastic athletics in the junior high school. It is a flourishing movement. It is a going concern, an athletic *must*, even without educational blessing. It is a bandwagon of the day with seemingly no end to the new followers hastening to climb aboard. Protesting to no avail are the medical men, mental hygienists, psychologists, sociologists, and certain worried educators and parents who feel that the trend is wrong. Even their group resolutions go unheeded.

The American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation in 1938, after consultation with the National Education Association and the American Medical Association, passed a resolution condemning the practice of interschool athletic competition below the senior high school. This resolution was approved again in 1946. The Society of State Directors of Physical Education, the Western Conference of Physical Education Directors, and many state associations of physical education have passed similar resolutions. With what effectiveness! The competition has not been checked, but is even moving downward into the fifth and sixth grades. In brief, the carefully considered and sound opinion of individuals closely concerned with the physical and emotional welfare of growing school boys is bringing no halt to this questionable development in school athletics.

The case *against* junior high school interscholastic athletics contends that physiologically, psychologically, sociologically, economically, and educationally, the movement is wrong.

The problem, however, is not confined to junior high schools. In many school systems boys in Grades 4, 5, and 6 are outfitted with full football gear and trained by regular coaches. Among the 113 replies from school

⁵⁵ Elmer D. Mitchell, "The Case Against Interscholastic Athletics in the Junior High School," *The University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*, Vol. 23 (November, 1951), pp. 23-25.

systems in 47 states Wayman found 41 per cent in which interschool competition was sponsored for boys in elementary schools.⁵⁶ Unpublished material supplied the writer helps to make the situation more vivid. In one city having 18 elementary schools the district was divided into three zones with five schools in Zone I, six in Zone II, and seven in Zone III. Each school had one team. Each team played one game with each of the other "elevens" in its zone according to a schedule which had been agreed upon by the coaches at the beginning of the season. There were no play-offs between zone winners and no elementary-school championship was declared. However, some of the better teams in each zone were asked to play a short preliminary game in the stadium on a Friday night prior to the high school contest. Eligibility for the zone team was determined by classifying the fourth, fifth, and sixth grade boys according to a combination of weighted factors consisting primarily of age, height, and weight, with an age limit of 13 years. A staff of 14 coaches trained the teams in the 18 schools. Data for 15 of the schools showed that 16.2 per cent or 403 of the 2484 boys in Grades 4, 5, and 6 belonged to the teams. During the school year 1951-1952 \$100 was budgeted for each school to buy equipment such as footballs, headgear, shoulder pads, jerseys, and pants (boys play in tennis shoes since football shoes are ruled out at the elementary level). For 1952-1953 the budgeted allowance for each school was increased to \$200. It is apparent that even with this generous appropriation parents must spend heavily if their sons are to have suitable attire for football.

No doubt the preceding account is "mild" when compared to the situation in some communities. The football menace in elementary schools has become a major concern of educators in general as well as leaders in physical education, health, recreation, and medicine. Several national conferences have been held to discuss the problem. Independent and joint action against interscholastic athletics in elementary schools has been taken by such organizations as the Society of State Directors of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association, the National Council of State Consultants in Elementary Education, and the Board of Directors of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. All are agreed that *activities should be appropriate to the level of maturity, skills, and interests of participants. Tackle football for children below the ninth grade and boxing for children and youth of all ages are definitely disapproved.* All are also agreed that the best interests of all children are served when school and community give priority to a broad program of *instruction* in physical education, based upon individual and

⁵⁶ Frances Wayman, chairman, "Interscholar Competition in the Elementary School," *Journal of the American Association of Health, Physical Education and Recreation*, Vol. 21 (May, 1950), pp. 279-280, 313-314.

group needs, for all boys and girls. Next in consideration should be a broad and varied program of voluntary informal recreation for children of all ages and an interesting extensive program of intramural activities for boys and girls in upper elementary grades and above. "Intramural activities" means individual, dual, and team sports with competition limited to contests between teams within the individual school (or neighborhood recreation center). Activities such as play days, sports days, and occasional invitational games which involve children of two or more schools, and which have high social values are to be encouraged. The emphasis should be upon social participation with the competitive aspect subordinated. Play days involve teams or groups made up of children from several schools all intermixed. Sports days include activities in which the playing units are composed of members of the same school. A few invitational contests in certain sports between schools (or natural neighborhood groups) on an informal basis may be considered when good instruction in physical education is provided, when recreational opportunities for all children are available within the school, and when additional informal recreational opportunities are provided during out-of-school hours.

In schools in which interscholastic athletics have already made their inroads, slow and painstaking work will have to be done through the P.T.A. and service clubs so that the pressure may be eased and ultimately the program discontinued. Schools which so far have been spared the football and baseball craze should lose no time in informing their patrons of the dangerous trend that is abroad so that the invasion can be forestalled. Several bulletins that should be helpful in establishing school policy and in parent education are now available.⁵⁷

HEALTH INSTRUCTION

Health instruction is commonly defined as the sum of all experiences which favorably influence habits, attitudes, and knowledge relating to individual, community, and racial health. Reference to the purposes of education, as set forth in Chapter 2, will indicate many points at which the school health program makes its contribution to the general purposes of education. The health program draws its largest responsibility from the following three items:⁵⁸

1. The educated person understands the basic facts concerning health and disease.

⁵⁷ American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, *Desirable Athletic Competition for Children* (Washington, N.E.A., 1952); National Conference on Physical Education for Children of Elementary School Age, *Physical Education for Children of Elementary School Age* (Chicago, Athletic Institute, 1951).

⁵⁸ *Health in Schools*, Twentieth Yearbook (Washington, American Association of School Administrators, 1942), p. 61.

2. The educated person protects his own health and that of his dependents.
3. The educated person works to improve the health of the community.

Health teaching in the elementary school will center around the formation and extension of desirable practices, attitudes, and understandings associated with (a) nutrition and growth, (b) relaxation, rest, and sleep, (c) activity, (d) fresh air and sunshine, (e) elimination, (f) cleanliness and care of teeth, body, and clothing, (g) importance of and means of securing dental and medical attention, (h) control of infection, (i) care of eyes and ears, (j) posture, (k) safety, and (l) emotional and social adjustment. In the upper grades of the elementary school there is, in addition, need to widen the horizons of the pupils to introduce them to health problems of the home, school, and community. These problems should not be considered in any predetermined sequence but should be more or less constant concerns of the teacher as she works with children and discovers their needs and interests. The scope and extent of the consideration of any particular problem will depend on the age and maturity of the children. As the child gains maturity he gains in capacity for understanding the reasons for health procedures and in ability to solve problems related to them, and should be given opportunity for the development of such understandings.

Many schools have been disappointed at their inability to secure tangible evidence of the effectiveness of their efforts at health education. Children seem to acquire given amounts of health knowledge but such knowledge does not appear to have much influence on habits and behavior. In some instances, in which special emphasis under expert leadership has been focused upon health education, the results are not as extensive as might have been anticipated.⁵⁹ It must be remembered that the majority of children's health practices take place in the home and the school has had a limited number of opportunities to accompany health teaching with consistent practice. The desirability of brushing one's teeth can be emphasized each day in school, but if the child has no tooth brush in his home and the idea of brushing teeth has not penetrated the thinking of the family group, the circumstances in the home environment militate against the child's practicing what he has learned. Many other similar illustrations could be cited. Health textbooks show attractive colored pictures of oranges and carrots, but perhaps the family cannot buy oranges and does not have a garden in which carrots could be raised.

Discouragement with older approaches and the general trend toward more functional teaching have produced a modern approach to health instruction which is very realistic. The emphasis is upon appropriate healthful conduct, i.e., *appropriate behavior* in all situations involving an individual's health. This emphasis is well described by Oberteuffer when he says that behavior is what counts.⁶⁰ It is what we do rather than what

⁵⁹ Ruth E. Grout and others, *Evaluation of a Rural School Health Education Project* (New York, Milbank Memorial Fund, 1938).

⁶⁰ Delbert Oberteuffer, *School Health Education* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1949), pp. 48-50.

we know or believe that is of greatest significance. Corollary objectives consist of the acquisition of knowledge about health and the development of proper attitudes toward it. Knowledge is the intellectual rationale which forms the basis for attitudes and behavior, but knowledge and attitudes are of small avail unless accompanied by sufficient conviction to prompt proper behavior. The best evaluation of pupil knowledge and attitudes is *to test for its existence through observation of behavior*.

The emphasis upon conduct or healthful living has brought a curriculum viewpoint that is highly functional. Children must live healthfully all day long in all of the things they do. At school the whole school day must be lived healthfully. Therefore, health instruction must be an integral part of all school activities. Children need guidance in the appropriate ways to carry on each of their activities. Sometimes simple information or demonstration is sufficient. At other times basic information has to be provided and efforts made to develop favorable attitudes. The latter occasions may call for specific periods of classroom time.

Teaching children how to live healthfully by guiding them to live healthfully at school and to recognize the health aspects of the topics and problems which they discuss in social studies and science means that no single plan or course of study would be suitable for all schools. Each school must develop its best approaches. The modern viewpoint and the sources of guidance useful to an individual school are given in the following quotation: ⁶¹

As already implied, the nature and content of the health education program for elementary-school children will be determined by the needs and interests of the particular group and by the stage of growth and development which they have reached. The health needs of children will vary somewhat from one school and community to another, and so must be found by studying the problems, interests, and abilities of the children concerned. Suggested sources of information are found in:

1. *Knowledge of the background of the community and the child*—This can be obtained thru conferences with parents, visits to the home, interviews with nurses and others who are in contact with homes, and by participation in community life.

2. *Observation of the health status of each child*—An understanding of the health condition of each child as revealed by health appraisal, records of illness, and classroom teachers' observations.

3. *Observations of behavior*—The child reveals his health habits and attitudes constantly in his everyday actions. The teacher can observe and note behavior in relation to cleanliness, posture, food, activity, use of eyes, control of infection, safety, and emotional and social adjustment. Helping each child to improve his behavior is the goal of health teaching. An understanding of his daily actions is necessary as a starting point.

4. *Expressions of child interest*—Thru daily contact with children the teacher discovers their interests and may utilize them to teach health principles as well

⁶¹ *Health in Schools*, rev. ed., pp. 145-146.

as to encourage additional interests. For example, the child's interest in the patrol boy's new raincoat may be the initial factor in the development of a comprehensive safety unit.

5. *Tests of health knowledge and attitudes*—For upper-grade children particularly, knowledge and attitude tests can be used to discover strengths and weaknesses in the pupils' health background. Such tests, if diagnostic in nature, can be of value in planning the health education program.

The modern functional approach to health instruction means that all teachers must be continuously alert to health teaching opportunities throughout the school day. Such incidental but nonetheless deliberately planned instruction will be supplemented with more extensive units from time to time. If the incidental instruction is to be effective, teachers should feel free to take class time for health teaching at whatever time of day the strategic opportunities arise. Time taken in this way should be counted in the total minutes per week devoted to health instruction. Unless this is done teachers will feel that the prescribed weekly periods absorb all the time which they can afford to allocate to health. A brief outline of the informal opportunities for health instruction is quoted below: ⁶²

1. A unit on safety may easily develop from the discussion of safe practices in going to and from school, or from the occurrence of an accident at or near the school.

2. The informal observation of children as they arrive at school, are on the playground, or walk by the teacher's desk may lead to consideration of problems of illness and personal appearance. Children, however, should not be embarrassed before the group if they fail to meet standards which are being stressed.

3. Inquiry concerning causes of absence may lead to a consideration of means of reducing absence due to illness, or of teaching children to stay home when ill.

4. The school lunch offers many opportunities for teaching cleanliness, food habits, manners, and desirable social experiences. The educational outcomes of the school lunch program sometimes have more significance in the lives of children than the actual nutritional benefit accruing from consumption of food. The properly conducted school lunchroom will be a factor in teaching children to wash their hands before eating, to eat and like a variety of foods, to sit down to a leisurely meal, to practice good table manners, and to converse with others. The school lunch offers an unexcelled opportunity for health education.

5. The weighing and measuring program can be the source of many health learnings. Children are interested in growth, and concern for growth is one reason for the weighing and measuring procedure. Interest in things which help children grow will be motivated by growth records kept by the individual child. The former practice of classifying children as "overweight" or "underweight" on the basis of height-weight-age tables is not generally recommended because of the many false interpretations sometimes put upon such data. The important thing to discover about each child is whether or not he is growing according to his individual pattern, and then to remedy any exceptional variability.

6. The rest periods which are desirable for young children may be used

⁶² *Ibid.*, pp. 147-148.

in teaching relaxation. It is important that all floors be warm and free from drafts when children lie on them, and that clean mats, rugs, or papers be used to protect clothing. Relaxing after activity periods by putting heads on desks is also used in some schools.

7. Learning to use toilets, washbowls, and drinking fountains correctly presents many opportunities for health teaching.

8. The health examination, dental appraisal, hearing and vision testing, immunization programs, and tuberculosis testing procedures are sources of many health learnings. Children need to know what to expect, how to conduct themselves, and the reasons for such procedures in accordance with their ability to understand them. Discussion will normally both precede and follow such programs, and attention then will be directed toward the development of desirable attitudes toward, and understandings of, the health service program.

9. The use of books and materials involves problems related to the care of the eyes, lighting, and cleanliness.

10. Adaptation of clothing to weather conditions is an important consideration as weather changes. Wearing coats, rubbers, galoshes, caps, and snow suits for protection outside in stormy, cold weather and removing them indoors is important. Children need to be guided in behavior in regard to clothing.

11. Play periods offer opportunity for experience in desirable exercise habits, safety skills, enjoyment of fresh air and sunshine, desirable emotional expression, and the social abilities of human relations. If the play or recess period is to be an educational experience, it must be planned, organized, and directed by pupils and teachers working together.

For a long time it has been recognized that the large number of subjects and activities demanding a place in the program of elementary education jeopardize the quality and the effectiveness of the work. Numerous efforts have been made to synthesize the elementary-school curriculum so that more effective teaching could result. The integration of history, geography, and civics and the teaching of English in connection with the social studies are illustrations of synthesis. It might be profitable to explore the possibilities of integrating health instruction with elementary science. Certainly the content of health education is drawn from science fields. If the program of elementary science could be conceived of as encompassing all the things which are now included in science plus all the health-teaching materials and opportunities in the health program, it might be possible to effect a rather comprehensive view of science in the elementary school and to have a carefully planned program wherein classroom instruction would be integrated with the many science-teaching opportunities in the health program. Such a program, broadly conceived and carefully planned, might result in a reduction of the crowdedness of the school schedule, in integration of closely related, if not identical, areas of content, greater allocation of responsibility for the comprehensive science program, and greater utilization of the laboratory situations provided by the health activities.

OTHER SCHOOL PRACTICES AFFECTING HEALTH

A comprehensive school health program geared to the protection and promotion of children's health and growth involves a vast variety of practices and considerations, many of which require administrative provisions only indirectly associated with the actual work with children but having vital relationship to the comprehensiveness of the elements which find a place in the program and the quality of the work with children. In this regard special mention should be made of the school building and grounds, particularly the sanitary facilities, playground, lighting, and seating. School records, the type and the methods of keeping records and using them, have many important relationships to the health program. The extent of special provisions for exceptional pupils is also a measure of the adequacy of the school health program. The length of the school day, the sequence of subjects and activities during the day, the provisions for rest periods, especially for pupils who arise early in the morning to ride on school buses, are other factors which merit careful study as part of the school health program.

COMMUNITY COORDINATION

Health is a *community* problem. The school is concerned with it, but so are many other agencies. In a democracy, health is and should be the concern of the entire citizenry. A realistic view of the present situation in most communities reveals tremendous overlapping of interests and responsibilities, duplication of effort, and lack of attention to several important problems because they are overlooked by all agencies. The agencies concerned with health in the typical community consist of the health department, the schools (public and private), private and public agencies working with youth, and a host of associations interested in specific diseases or specific health needs. As a rule, each of these agencies conducts its activities in its own chosen sphere, and each approaches the public for financial aid by direct or indirect means unrelated to the needs of other groups and frequently unrelated to a comprehensive inventory of all the health problems of the community. The need for coordination of community effort and resources is obvious.

Much progress has been made in some communities toward the coordination of the various agencies concerned with health and toward the development of a comprehensive community program in which all the health needs of the entire community were considered, and a program of action outlined which would deal first with the most urgent needs or in which emphasis was given in proportion to urgency of the various problems. An extensive study of some of the most forward-looking plans of com-

munity coordination was made in 1939 by a committee of the American Public Health Association.⁶³ In Santa Barbara County, California, the county health department furnished all the health services for all the schools in the county. These included 43 elementary and 4 high schools, with a total enrollment of 7500 pupils. In Jefferson County, Alabama, which includes the city of Birmingham and the industrial area around it, the county board of health paid the salaries of three special school health-education supervisors who rendered liaison service between the schools and the health department. A fourth supervisor was a trained nutritionist who spent most of her time in the training and supervision of lunchroom managers and their assistants. A survey undertaken during 1948-1949 brought only 873 usable replies from the 3796 school superintendents to whom it had been sent. The usable replies showed that in 61.9 per cent of school systems in cities of all sizes the board of education provided school health services with little or no help from the city or county health departments.⁶⁴ In only 13.6 per cent of the school systems did the city or county health departments provide school health services with little or no help from the board of education, and in only 6.5 per cent of the places was the service shared on some equitable basis by these two agencies. It seems unfortunate that so little effective cooperation in the school health program has developed between the schools and the local public health agency. No doubt the limited budgets and limited staffs of city or county health departments has forced school systems to employ their own staffs if they wanted the school health program to move forward. Theoretically it would be better if a single agency could have responsibility for all the health services (such as medical and dental examinations, immunizations, follow-up on needed corrections, and control of communicable diseases). School children represent but one portion of the components of a family; preschool children, the parents, and older persons in the home also have health problems. The school child's problems arise within, and must be resolved within, the total family situation. If the same public health agent could deal with all the health problems in a family it would save time and travel for what otherwise would require calls by several persons.

The survey previously mentioned also obtained data regarding organizations and agencies other than the local health departments which give extensive help in school health programs, and the types of services given. More than a score of organizations and agencies were reported by the superintendents. Prominent in the list of cooperating agencies were medical associations, tuberculosis societies, dental associations, men's service clubs, and the P.T.A. Chest X-rays, help for the physically handicapped in

⁶³ *Community Organization for Health Education* (New York, American Public Health Association, 1941).

⁶⁴ "Personnel and Relationships in School Health, Physical Education, and Recreation," *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 27 (October, 1950), p. 101.

the form of glasses, hearing aids, and so forth; physical examinations; dental examinations; and treatment for indigent children headed the list of more than a score of types of help rendered by these organizations.

In view of the diversified interests and activities of the many local groups interested in health it is surprising that community coordinating councils for health have been developed in so few places. Only 28.2 per cent of the school systems identified in the N.E.A. survey had such councils in 1948-1949. Even in cities of 100,000 and over population such councils were found in only 58.5 per cent of the communities. Small communities should be even more amenable to community coordination than large cities, but only 17.6 per cent in the 2500 to 4999 population group had such councils.

The American Association of School Administrators recommended the following list of principles of community coordination:⁶⁵

1. The school should make full use of the facilities of available community health agencies in its educational program.
2. Any plan of cooperation requires a delineation of the activities of the participating agencies and of individuals within the agencies.
3. Any participating agency must retain administrative control of its own activities.
4. Cooperation in the school health program requires a recognition of the professional nature of education as well as that of the health-medical sciences.
5. There is no single best plan for coordinating the work of the community health agencies with the health program of the school.
6. In successful joint programs the democratic process of group thinking is important.
7. The development of an effective community health organization in a democratic society requires continued, patient, and persistent effort.
8. As cooperative activities succeed and increase in scope, there often develops a program requiring the efforts of some one person to draw the activities together and to see that the program as a whole moves toward the general goal.

THE CLASSROOM TEACHER IN THE HEALTH PROGRAM

There is a definite trend to augment the prominence of the classroom teacher in the health program. Before 1920 such health work as was done was done largely by her. Then, as the scope of school health work was extended and health specialists of various kinds were brought in, many of the health services were performed by the specialized personnel, partially because teachers were untrained for the work and partially because there was a feeling that certain tasks could be performed only by those who had had specialized training. As a result the health program operated apart from the classroom teachers. In some schools the teachers developed a

⁶⁵ *Health in Schools*, rev. ed., pp. 422-426.

feeling of such complete helplessness that they could not even isolate an apparently ill child without having a nurse present to bolster their judgment. The fact that the health records containing the results of medical examinations were seldom accessible to teachers, and probably would not have been intelligible to them if they had been accessible, did not help matters any.

The conditions just described appear to be changing. Teachers the country over are receiving more training in health and physical education than they used to in both their pre-service and in-service programs. Under the Social Security Act health departments have increased in number, especially in rural areas, and thus make available specialized personnel who assist with the development of school programs and the in-service education of teachers. The school's concern with the well-rounded growth and development of the whole child requires the teacher to deal with health and physical growth on the same basis as mental, social, and emotional development. Such activities as screening tests for vision and hearing, periodic weighing and measuring, daily health inspection, and communicable disease control need to be performed by the teacher if their educational values are to be exploited and if the teacher is to keep in intimate contact with each child's health and growth. The direct relationship between children's health, behavior, educational development and the classroom environment requires the teacher to be the key operator in this realm. Many schools do not have special teachers of health or physical education so that the instructional responsibilities in these fields rest with the regular classroom teachers.⁶⁶

Experience has shown that teachers who have continuous day-by-day contact with pupils and who are continuously alert to possible symptoms are better able to discern when a child is deviating from normal health than a person who visits the classroom infrequently. Most of the recent health demonstrations have relied heavily on the teacher's part in the health program. Nyswander reported that when teachers were asked to identify those pupils who were in need of a medical examination, only 11 per cent of those nominated by the teacher were found free from observable defects but about 25 per cent of those not named by the teacher had some symptoms which suggested that they should be seen by the physician. This study showed that teachers unaided can select a majority of the pupils needing care but that a much higher accuracy of selection is obtained if the teacher is aided by the nurse. In general, there appears to be a definite trend toward increasing the importance and the extent of the teacher's participation in the health program and school procedures should be organized to permit the teacher to assume this important role.

⁶⁶ J. B. Sauborn, "Who Shall Teach Elementary School Physical Education?" *Journal of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation*, Vol. 21 (February, 1950), pp. 76, 114.

EVALUATION OF THE HEALTH PROGRAM

It is doubtful whether there is any phase of elementary education which is more in need of careful study and reorientation than the program for the protection and promotion of children's health. Recent researches and surveys have revealed the shortcoming of present practices and have raised questions about basic issues. Many of these considerations have been dealt with in preceding sections of this chapter.

The major issues may be grouped into five categories identified by the following questions: (1) What shall be the role of the classroom teacher in the health program and how can the program be organized to make that role an effective one? (2) Who shall give the medical and dental examinations and how can the needed corrective treatment be secured? At present there are three conflicting viewpoints, no one of which has been carefully evaluated by experimental procedures. On one hand are those who believe the board of education should employ physicians and dentists to do the work; others believe the services should be rendered by the staff of the public health agency; still others believe that the services should be rendered by physicians and dentists in private practice, the school or the public health agency providing or paying for the services for indigent cases. (3) How shall the specialized health personnel on the school staff spend its time? Shall the physician and the dentist periodically examine all children or only selected cases? Shall the nurse spend her time in routine vision- and hearing-testing, weighing and measuring, making morning inspections, verifying teachers' judgments about pupils who should be excluded because of symptoms which might presage the onset of a communicable disease, thus depriving the teacher of strategic contacts with the health program? If the nurse is not to do these things, then how can the nurse's time and talent be used to best advantage? Williams and Abernathy challenge the usual role assigned by schools to nurses. These authors believe that under present conditions the most useful function of the school nurse is her work in home visitation and follow-up of children found to have correctible defects. For this role her hospital training is poor preparation. They even question the value of requiring a person to first become a Registered Nurse; to serve well in a school health program it would appear not only wasteful but ridiculous to require that she first prepare to take care of the sick in home and hospital. The important services needed in a school health program require persons trained as public health nurses or social case workers.⁶⁷ (4) How can the health instruction phases of the program be made most fruitful in terms of tangible results and how can the maximum educational returns be secured from the various service activities? (5) How shall the school's part in the health

⁶⁷ Jesse F. Williams and Ruth Abernathy, *Health Education in Schools* (New York, The Ronald Press Co., 1949), pp. 28-31.

program be related to, and coordinated with, the general needs of the community? To what extent and by what methods can the school become an active force in improving the health conditions and health practices in the community?

On many phases of the issues named above some experimentation is taking place and experience is producing some evidence which points in desirable directions. All of the issues, however, ought to be subjected to careful research. Thoughtful and scientific evaluation is possible only if schools will realize the need and betake themselves to engage in the task of setting up the studies necessary to give better answers to the many unanswered questions in this field. Leadership is needed if anything other than a laissez-faire development is to take place.

THE PRINCIPAL'S PART IN THE PROGRAM FOR HEALTH

Attention has been called previously to the lack of coordination between the various aspects of the program for health. It is not uncommon to find elementary schools in which health instruction is given according to systematically outlined courses of study, the contents of which are quite unrelated to the immediate health needs of the children. Likewise physical education activities do not take into account the existing physical characteristics and needs of children. These conditions exist in spite of the fact that the health-service department collects and has available extensive data regarding the health conditions and health habits of children. It would seem, therefore, that the foremost responsibility of the principal with reference to the program for health is to coordinate the work of the various departments or units within the school which have to do with health. Administrative procedures must be instituted which will make it convenient and possible at all times for the classroom teacher, the physical-education teacher, the school nurse and physician, the mental hygienist, the visiting teacher, and others who deal with the physical, mental, or social health of children to cooperate and to coordinate their efforts.

It is generally recognized that the principal is responsible for initiating and developing in local school units systematic programs of one kind or another. Whether a particular project is worked out in only a given school or whether it is an integral part of a city-wide program, the responsibility for its development rests largely with the principal. If a systematic, coordinated course of instruction in health and safety education is to find expression in the school, the principal must be in a position to lead the way and to help teachers in effecting the proposed plans. Suggestive outlines, courses of study, methods of procedure, and specific objectives for various age groups are available and may be utilized.

To make the classroom instruction in health effective, it is essential

that the teachers be furnished with an abundance of health materials. Invariably the principal can be of great assistance in familiarizing teachers with materials and in securing for them not only the materials which can be obtained through regular requisition from the central office but also the wealth of materials which are usable for health teaching issued by the various public, social, and commercial agencies. Much of this material in the form of posters, folders, and pamphlets is free or inexpensive. Health articles from newspapers and magazines are frequently very helpful in stimulating the interest of children in good health. Health clubs and interclass projects and contests, individual health charts, posters prepared by pupils, and individual progress records are used to advantage in some schools.

A fourth responsibility of the principal with reference to the health program has to do with the making of periodic health surveys. Some health-survey techniques have been suggested in the above paragraphs, and others may be found in professional literature. Such surveys render great service in familiarizing pupils and teachers with the actual status of health practices and in providing excellent bases for an immediate program for improvement of the health program in the school.

Prevention and control of contagious diseases is often considered the major function of the school physician or the public health agency. The principal, however, must assume the responsibility for identifying cases of suspected contagion and for securing their examination. To accomplish this a thorough system of daily inspection of pupils by teachers is essential. Teachers must be assisted in their efforts and trained in techniques for detecting the chief signs of illness in children. Suspected cases must be handled with dispatch. The principal will need to devise forms for use in sending children to the school or private physician or school nurse for inspection, for excusing children from school attendance, and for checking their return to classes after exclusion.

Previously in this chapter attention was called to the fact that health education is the sum of experiences in school and elsewhere which favorably influence individual, community, and racial health. Obviously the curriculum in health for the child extends far beyond the confines of the school. The conditions of the neighborhood, various types of community recreation centers, and the conditions of, and the practices in, the home have significant relationships to the development of health habits and knowledges on the part of the child, and determine in part the effectiveness of the school program. To secure the sympathetic support of the public for the health program the school is sponsoring, and to secure the necessary cooperation of parents and the various community agencies, it is essential that the principal take a leading part in making the program for child health not merely a school project but a community project. To this end the principal must establish cordial relations with the community or-

ganizations and agencies and with parents through mothers' clubs or the parent-teacher association. The importance of these community contacts cannot be overstressed since they determine in no small measure the effectiveness of the school health program.

Of no less importance than his other responsibilities regarding the program for health is the principal's duty so to organize his office that the effective administration of the health program is possible. Procedures should also be established whereby the nurse and those giving medical or dental examinations may go about their duties with a minimum of interruption of class work and at the same time permit the maximum of health service for the pupils. Of equal importance is the development of procedures whereby the data gathered by the health-service department are made readily available to those giving health instruction and to those in charge of physical-education activities.

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12

Educational Provisions for Exceptional Children

THERE IS NO CLEAR-CUT dividing line between "typical" and "exceptional" children; nearly every child is exceptional in some regard—a democracy places a premium on individual talents as well as on cooperative citizenship. Educationally, society wants every child to receive the kind of training which will enable him to be a useful citizen, contributing to society and to himself in accordance with his capacity. The concept of "exceptional children" is merely an enlargement of the meaning of individual differences. The large majority of children have traits and abilities which are similar enough in kind and extent so that from an educational point of view their needs can be supplied reasonably well through the usual type of class instruction. There are some children, however, who possess some traits sufficiently in plus or in minus quantities so that they cannot be taught satisfactorily with the typical class group. These children are commonly considered as "exceptional." They deviate from the normal or average children to such an extent that special educational facilities have been provided. Among the group of exceptional children are the feeble-minded, the gifted, the psychoneurotic, the speech-defectives, the delinquent, the blind, the deaf, the physically handicapped, and others. Some of these children have deficiencies which require only temporary adjustment, whereas others need special method throughout their entire school training.

THE SCOPE OF THE PROBLEM

It is difficult to present completely accurate figures on the number of exceptional children of each type that may be found in the typical school population because the various surveys that have been made have not used equally exacting criteria in selecting cases. Variations in the percentage of exceptional children are apt to exist among communities and even within the same community during different periods of time. If one allows for these several contingencies, the estimates presented by Martens are very useful in viewing the scope of the problem in a local community. On the basis of an estimated population of 33,604,000 children 5 to 19 years of

age in 1945, Martens gave the following estimates of number and percentage of exceptional children in the United States: ¹

TYPE	ESTIMATED PERCENTAGE	ESTIMATED NUMBER
Blind and partially seeing	0.2	67,208
Deaf and hard of hearing	1.5	504,060
Crippled	1.0	336,040
Delicate (of lowered vitality)	1.5	504,060
Speech—defective	1.5	504,060
Mentally retarded	2.0	672,080
Epileptic	0.2	67,208
Menally gifted	2.0	672,080
Behavior problems	2.5	840,100
Total	12.4	4,166,896

As compared with other estimates that have been made, the one by Martens is considered conservative. Ewing, for example, stated in 1949 that 4,000,000 children and youth had visual defects, 1,000,000 had hearing defects, 500,000 had handicaps requiring orthopedic or plastic treatment, 500,000 had rheumatic fever and rheumatic heart disease, 200,000 had epilepsy, more than 175,000 were crippled by infantile paralysis, 175,000 suffered from cerebral palsy, 175,000 had tuberculosis, and some 35,000 had diabetes.² Ewing's figures, of course, include health and medical care problems, and hence are more extensive than the special education needs would be.

STATE PROVISIONS FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

A complete view of society's provisions for exceptional children of elementary-school age includes numerous private contributions made by relatives, friends, foster homes, and institutions (philanthropic and tuition), the publicly supported state institutions and services, and the special schools and classes in local school districts. At the state level are included the state-supported residential schools, state financial aid to the efforts in local school districts, and the professional leadership and supervision provided by various state departments, usually the state education department.

Assumption of responsibility by the state for the education of handicapped children began in 1817 when a state-aided residential school for the deaf was established in Hartford, Connecticut. By 1850 the policy of providing educational opportunity for handicapped children of various types through the medium of residential schools was well established. The

¹ Elise H. Martens, *Needs of Exceptional Children*, U. S. Office of Education, Leaflet No. 74 (Washington, Superintendent of Documents, 1944).

² Oscar R. Ewing, "The Nation's Health—A Ten Year Program," *Journal of Exceptional Children*, Vol. 15 (1949), p. 161.

general assumption has been that if a state requires that all educable children shall attend school, including the physically and the mentally handicapped, the state has the responsibility of providing the type of school that they can attend with safety or the type of educational facility by which they can profit. Today every state and territory provides residential school service for several types of exceptional children, either through the maintenance of its own state schools or through paying for such service in private schools within the state or in public or private schools in neighboring states. In 1947 every state, the District of Columbia, and the territories of Hawaii and Puerto Rico had residential schools for delinquent or otherwise socially maladjusted youth, there being a total of 167 such schools with a total enrollment of 22,745. In addition, there were 29 county and municipal schools for the socially handicapped. Forty-seven states had made some provision for the institutionalization of their feeble-minded. In 1947 there were 140 public and private institutions for the feeble-minded located in 47 states with a total enrollment of 21,562. In the same year there were 81 residential schools (public and private) in 47 states for deaf children, with a total membership of 13,123. Fifty-six schools in 43 states enrolled 5235 blind pupils and 10 schools in 10 states enrolled 1096 epileptic children. Altogether in 1947 there were 454 residential schools (public and private) for the several types of exceptional children; the total enrollment in these schools was 63,761. Although much progress has been made in recent decades in the institutional care of exceptional children, it is obvious from the figures quoted that institutional care is reaching only a fraction of the needy children. Fortunately the expanding service through special day-schools and classes operated by local school systems is making a noticeable inroad on the proportion of children heretofore not reached through any of the channels.

Financial aid to local school districts operating special schools or classes for exceptional children constitutes the second major contribution of the state. In 1947, 1459 cities located in 47 states, the District of Columbia, and the Territory of Hawaii operated such classes with a total enrollment of 387,059 children.

The third major state contribution toward the education of exceptional children lies in the professional leadership and supervision provided by the state education departments. The early beginnings of state leadership in this field were described by Martens in the following terms: ³

To Wisconsin belongs the honor of having instituted in 1885 the first legislation for day classes for handicapped children, and in 1901 the first inspectorial position in the State Department of Public Instruction for the approval of such classes. The group first to be served in this way were the deaf, but in 1907 the

³ Elise H. Martens, *State Supervisory Programs for the Education of Exceptional Children*, U. S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 6, Monograph No. 10, Studies of State Departments of Education (1940).

blind were added for consideration, and in 1913, the speech-defectives. In 1915 the State Board of Education in Connecticut appointed the first State school psychologists to make mental examinations of backward and defective children and to devise methods for their better instruction in the public schools. Wyoming in 1919, New York in 1920, and Wisconsin and Pennsylvania in 1921 followed with the appointment of similar staff members, and with an increasing emphasis upon educational and supervisory aspects of the work.

At about the same time began an intensified interest in the educational welfare of physically handicapped children in day schools. Ohio in 1921 and New York in 1926 created divisions in the State Education Department to initiate services for this group. In 1927 Wisconsin enlarged its already existing State program by adding a division for crippled children, and California set up a program in the same year for both mentally and physically handicapped. Part-time services by members of the State staff charged with other major responsibilities were likewise instituted in Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, and in later years in Kentucky, Maryland, and New Jersey. Some of these part-time services (i.e., in Massachusetts and Michigan) have in recent years been placed upon a full-time basis. Latest additions to the group of States exercising supervisory responsibility for the education of exceptional children are Delaware, in 1932; Colorado, in 1936; and Virginia, in 1938. Thus in East and West, North and South the movement has spread, and the total number of States having on the State education staff one or more persons identified with this field in title and in functions on either a full-time or a part-time basis now stands at 16.

The preceding quotation was published in 1940. By 1948, 23 states had by law established state supervisory and consultative services in their state departments of education. In 11 other states supervisory personnel in the field of special education had been added to state department staffs under powers of appointment previously vested in the chief state school officer. The number of states which maintain specialized supervisory personnel at the state level has thus grown from 16 in 1940 to 36 in 1947, the latter including the District of Columbia and the Territory of Hawaii.

The supervisory functions and activities of the full-time and part-time supervisors of the education of exceptional children in the 34 state education departments which have such staff members may be classified into four groups: (1) the administrative and directive services include such items as the enumeration of exceptional children, determination of policies, organization of classes, and state-aid relationships; (2) supervisory services include visitation of classes, group conferences, teacher-training, and the preparation of instructional materials for teachers; (3) coordinating and promotional services involve relationships with other state and local agencies and with local schools; (4) the development and administration of objectives, standards, and regulations involve methods of selection of cases, eligibility for enrollment, methods of assignment to special classes, class size, teacher qualifications, teachers' salaries, class organization, housing, and equipment.

THE SCHOOL LAW AND SPECIAL CLASSES

Care for society's unfortunate deviates began in private institutions supported by philanthropy. There gradually developed, however, an attitude of state responsibility for the education and care of those who seemed apparently unqualified to participate successfully in the life of society. It was perhaps only natural that attention should be directed first to the most obvious cases, namely, the totally blind and the deaf-mutes on one hand, and the low grade idiots on the other. For the benefit of such extreme deviates and for the protection of society, state institutions for the blind, the deaf, the feeble-minded, and the social and moral delinquents were established.

The attitude regarding society's obligation to the handicapped has been gradually changing from that of "finding a convenient method whereby the burden upon society could be relieved" to that of looking upon the handicapped as cases which require special training so they may become self-supporting citizens. The excellent educational work undertaken in some of the private and state residential schools demonstrated the unquestioned desirability of applying appropriate training and education. The successful work of these institutions focused attention upon the presence of similar children in the public schools and the special problems which they created in the administration of public education. Surveys of the pedagogical status of children in the public schools revealed in a striking manner the presence in the schools of many children not institutional cases, yet deviating sufficiently so that they were apparently obtaining little benefit from the usual school procedure. The similarities between institutional cases and many of those found in public schools suggested the benefits which the latter might derive if administrative arrangements would permit their segregation and appropriate treatment. The fact that state institutions were already overcrowded and that they could take only the worst cases at any rate made it seem imperative that public schools provide for those who were "somewhat handicapped" through the establishment of special classes.

The school law in all states did not empower school boards to make provisions for atypical children. This situation, plus the fact that the public schools were being recognized as the appropriate political unit through which the exceptional children in need of special treatment could be reached, has led state legislatures to place upon the statutes laws relating to the administration of special instruction in public schools. From rather simple beginnings just prior to 1900 (Table 31), state interest in the establishment of special classes has grown rapidly (Table 32). The number of exceptional children being served in 1947-1948 is portrayed in Table 33.

TABLE 31: Pioneer Public-School Classes for Various Types of Exceptional Children

TYPE OF EXCEPTIONAL PUPILS	PIONEER CITIES IN THE ESTABLISHMENT OF SPECIAL SCHOOLS OR CLASSES
Mentally handicapped	Providence, 1896; Springfield (Mass.), 1897; Chicago, 1898; Boston, 1899; New York, 1900; Philadelphia, 1901; Los Angeles, 1902.
Deaf or hard of hearing	Boston, 1869.
Blind or partially-seeing	Chicago, 1900.
Crippled or physically handicapped	Chicago, 1899; New York, 1906; Cleveland, 1910; Philadelphia and Baltimore, 1913.
Anemic, tubercular	Providence and Boston, 1908; Chicago and Rochester (N. Y.), 1909; New York and Hartford, 1910.
Delinquent, unstable	New York, 1874; Cleveland, 1879.
Gifted	Louisville (Ky.), 1918.*

* Experimental class organized explicitly for gifted children. Various enrichment plans and promotion schemes had been in use for more than 40 years.

TABLE 32: Historical Summary of Statistics for Special Schools and Classes for Exceptional Children in City School Systems *

TYPE AND YEAR	NUMBER OF		
	States Reporting	Cities Reporting	Pupils Reported
Blind and partially sighted:			
1922	12	10	†
1948	34 ‡	265	8,276
Deaf and hard of hearing:			
1922	16	74	2,911
1948	40 ‡	288	14,082
Speech-defective:			
1932 §	†	†	22,735
1948	40	455	182,344
Crippled:			
1930 §	22	81	13,120
1948	48 ‡	960	30,547
Delicate:			
1930 §	27	81	19,153
1948	43 ‡	550	19,187
Epileptic:			
1940 §	13	33	499
1948	21	65	390
Mentally deficient:			
1922	23	133	23,252
1948	47 ‡	730	87,179
Socially maladjusted:			
1930 §	20	44	9,543
1948	25	90	15,340
Mentally gifted:			
1932 §	†	†	1,834
1948	11	15	20,712

* Adapted from Elise H. Martens, "Statistics of Special Schools and Classes for Exceptional Children," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1946-48* (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1950), Ch. 5, p. 10.

† Data not available.

‡ Includes the Territory of Hawaii.

§ Previous data not available.

TABLE 33: Exceptional Children Enrolled in Special Schools and Classes in City-School Systems, 1947-1948 *

TYPE	ENROLLMENT												
	In Schools or Classes			Home Instruction			Hospital Instruction			Total			
	Ele-men-tary Grades	Sec-ond-ary Grades	Total	Ele-men-tary Grades	Sec-ond-ary Grades	Total	Ele-men-tary Grades	Sec-ond-ary Grades	Total				
Blind and partially see- ing	6,924	1,321	8,245	25	4	29	2		2	6,951	1,325		8,276
Deaf and hard-of-hear- ing	11,893	2,171	14,064	16	2	18				11,909	2,173		14,082
Speech-defective	173,246	9,062	182,308	27	6	33	3		3	173,276	9,068		182,344
Crippled	13,298	1,224	14,522	6,003	1,581	7,584	7,521	920	8,441	26,822	3,725		30,547
Delicate	10,516	599	11,115	4,385	804	5,189	2,422	463	2,885	17,323	1,866		19,189
Epileptic	319	5	324	48	18	66				367	23		390
Mentally deficient	74,624	12,518	87,142	36		36	1		1	74,661	12,518		87,179
Truants or behavior problems	12,151	3,150	15,301	33	6	39				12,184	3,156		15,340
Mentally gifted	4,080	16,632	20,712							4,080	16,632		20,712
Total	307,051	46,682	353,733	10,573	2,421	12,994	9,949	1,383	11,332	327,573	50,486		378,059

* Reproduced from Elise H. Martens, "Statistics for Special Schools and Classes for Exceptional Children," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1946-48* (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1950), Ch. 5, p. 12.

The character of the school laws relating to special-class education differs materially from state to state. In certain states, such as Pennsylvania, California, and Illinois, it was recognized that the proper education of atypical children might require encouragement or, in fact, compulsion, so laws were passed which provided state aid to local schools if certain types of special classes were organized. In some instances school systems in cities of a specified size or in certain types of districts are compelled to establish special classes for some types of handicapped pupils, if a given number of such defective children are to be found within the district. In other states again, the local districts are free to decide whether special education is to be provided. The laws pertaining to any particular type of special class differ from state to state. The details by states, as they prevailed in 1948, are shown in Table 34. Subsequent sessions of state legislatures have made numerous modifications in the laws relating to the education of exceptional children.⁴

Special financial aid given by the states to local districts as assistance in the operation of schools or classes for exceptional children is determined according to one or more of the following four bases: (1) the excess cost of educating exceptional children, up to a stipulated ceiling; (2) a lump sum appropriation, for administrative allotment; (3) the teaching or instructional unit; and (4) the total cost of special education, or fraction thereof. Some states use one or another of these bases exclusively for all groups of exceptional children, whereas other states use one basis for certain types of programs and another basis for other services. A combination of bases is used in Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, and Oklahoma. All the other states follow the same plan for all types of groups included in the special state-aid program. In 25 of the states for which financial data were available, the amount of state money appropriated for the 1947-1949 biennium (or in a few cases 1949-1950) was less than \$10,000 in one state, from \$10,000 to \$49,000 in five states, from \$55,000 to \$99,000 in four states, from \$100,000 to \$499,000 in five states, from \$500,000 to \$999,000 in three states, and \$1,000,000 or more in seven states.⁵ The seven states represented in the last group are California, Illinois, Michigan, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin.

The laws in the several states identify three places wherein special instruction for exceptional children may take place. These are (1) the classroom at school, (2) the child's own home, and (3) the hospital, sanatorium, or convalescent home. Two states restrict services to excep-

⁴ Elise H. Martens, "State Legislatures and Exceptional Children in 1949," *Journal of Exceptional Children*, Vol. 16 (March, 1950), pp. 161-164, 175.

⁵ Elise H. Martens and collaborators, *State Legislation for Education of Exceptional Children*, Bulletin No. 2, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education (1949), pp. 33-35.

tional children to home or hospital instruction while two other states exclude home instruction from state aid. Among the total of 34 states in which state aid was available in 1948, 32 states include special schools or classes, 32 include home instruction, and 32 include hospital instruction. The number of states which include other specifically authorized features are: ⁶

	NUMBER OF STATES
Transportation of children to and from school	25
Contracts with neighboring school districts	17
Joint special classes by two or more districts	10
County-wide plan of special education	5
Maintenance of pupils receiving instruction outside their own districts	12
Itinerant teachers	8
Special equipment and appliances	14
Therapeutic care	9
Lunch or special diets	5
Part-time special instruction	5
Counseling and guidance of pupils	3
Preparation of teachers	5

Establishment of a special class for one or more types of exceptional children hinges frequently upon the number of such pupils in the local district. Usually, if local tax funds alone are used, a school system may proceed regardless of the number of pupils in need of service. Wherever special state aid is available, and is utilized, the law invariably defines the minimum size of the group for which a special class may be organized. The figures usually specified as the minimum number of pupils required to organize a class are from 5 to 10. Arkansas stipulates that the minimum number is 5 of any one type or of types which may be taught together. Louisiana and Minnesota have the same minimum requirement as Arkansas except that Minnesota specifies that blind children, defective speech children, and mentally subnormal children are not to be admitted to the same class with deaf children, but must each have separate classes and separate teachers. Oklahoma requires 6 children in residence to provide a teacher. Ohio and New Jersey specify 8 crippled children and Ohio requires 12 slow-learning children to organize a class. Oregon requires that there be 8 or more of a specific type. Whenever the laws of a state have a mandatory clause, 10 is the standard number of pupils within the district for making the organization of a class mandatory. California requires the organization of a class for mentally retarded if there are 15 or more pupils in the district.

⁶ *Ibid*, p. 37.

TABLE 34: Basic Legal Provisions for State-Aided Programs of Special Education in Local School Districts in 1948 *

STATE	CHILDREN SPECIFIED BY LAW	PERMISSIVE (P) OR MANDATORY (M)		BASIS OF ANNUAL STATE AID
Arizona	Crippled in Pima County and Maricopa County.	M		Special appropriation for administrative use.
Arkansas	Physically handicapped (except those enrolled at state schools for deaf and blind).	P		Excess cost up to \$200 per pupil in residence; up to \$350 per nonresident.
California	Physically handicapped.	P †		Excess cost up to \$400 per unit of average daily attendance.
	Mentally retarded.	M for 15 or more pupils.		75 per cent of excess cost, but not to exceed \$75 per unit of average daily attendance.
Colorado	Physically handicapped.	P		Special appropriation for administrative allotment; up to \$300 for nonresident pupil; total cost of home and hospital instruction.
Connecticut	Educationally exceptional children.	P; M for 7 or more children upon petition of parents and approval of state Board of Education.		Physically handicapped: $\frac{2}{3}$ of disbursements of town for their education, but not to exceed \$200 per resident pupil, and \$300 per nonresident. Children with two defects may be counted twice. (Mentally handicapped: no state aid.)
Florida	Exceptional children: physical, mental, or emotional deviates.	M, insofar as practicable.		10 or more exceptional children considered one instruction unit in apportionment of state funds.
Illinois	Physically handicapped.	P		Excess cost up to \$300 per pupil.
	Maladjusted.	P		Excess cost up to \$190 per pupil.
	Mentally handicapped.	P		Excess cost up to \$250 per pupil.

I IndianaHandicapped children, with physical or mental disability (except totally blind or deaf, eligible for residential schools).	P	Excess cost.
I IowaPhysically handicapped, emotionally maladjusted, or intellectually incapable (excluding those for whom special institutions are provided).	P	Special appropriation for equitable reimbursement for excess cost per pupil, to be made by administrative allotment. For deaf children: \$20 per month per child.
K KentuckyPhysically handicapped. Mentally handicapped.	P P	Excess cost up to \$275 per pupil. Excess cost up to \$125 per pupil.
L LouisianaCrippled or physically disabled.	P	Special appropriation for administrative allotment.
M MainePhysically handicapped.	P; M	Excess cost up to \$200 per pupil in residence and \$350 per nonresident pupil.
M MarylandPhysically handicapped. Mentally handicapped.	P P	Approved cost up to \$200 per pupil. Each special class considered a separate unit in determining equalization fund for county. (Baltimore not included.)
MassachusettsPhysically handicapped.	M	Total cost of classes for deaf in 6 towns. Special appropriation for other groups for administrative allotment.
M MichiganPhysically handicapped.	P	For reimbursable expenditures, up to \$200 per pupil in residence and \$300 per nonresident pupil. Total reimbursement for speech-defective, home-bound, and hospitalized.

* Elise H. Martens and collaborators, *State Legislation for Education of Exceptional Children*, Bulletin No. 2 (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1949), pp. 28-32.

† But "any school district which does not maintain facilities for the education of physically handicapped minors shall enter into a contract with a school district in the same county maintaining such facilities" or any other county. Deering's California Codes, §9601.2.

TABLE 34: Basic Legal Provisions for State-Aided Programs of Special Education in Local School Districts in 1948 (cont'd)

STATE	CHILDREN SPECIFIED BY LAW	PERMISSIVE (P) OR MANDATORY (M)	BASIS OF ANNUAL STATE AID
Minnesota	Deaf.	P; M upon petition of parents of 8 children and with approval of state Commissioner of Education.	Excess cost not to exceed \$250 per resident pupil, \$400 per nonresident.
	Blind.	As above.	Excess cost not to exceed \$300 per resident pupil, \$450 per nonresident.
	Crippled.	As above.	Excess cost not to exceed \$250 per pupil for home or class instruction.
	Speech- defective.	As above.	Excess cost not to exceed \$1500 for each teacher.
	Subnormal.	As above.	Excess cost not to exceed \$100 per pupil.
Missouri	Physically handicapped.	P	Excess cost not to exceed per pupil allowance of: \$300 for orthopedically handicapped. \$250 for deaf and hard-of-hearing. \$225 for blind and partially seeing. \$20 for speech-defectives. \$100 for mentally deficient and mentally retarded.
Nebraska	Mentally deficient or mentally retarded. Deaf.	P; M for 10 or more children. P	\$150 to \$300 per pupil, depending upon the size of the class.
New Jersey	Physically handicapped.	P; M for 10 or more children.	One-half of excess cost as approved by Commissioner of Education.
	Subnormal.	As above.	Each special class considered a special unit in apportionment of state funds.

New Mexico	Crippled.	P	An additional teacher allowed in apportionment of state funds for each 5 to 15 crippled children; and an additional teacher for each additional 15 crippled children or major fraction thereof.
New York	Physically handicapped. Mentally retarded. Delinquents.	P; M for 10 or more children. As above. As above.	\$800 for each approved special class; ‡ one-half of cost incurred for individual cases. \$800 for each approved special class. As above.
North Carolina	Physically handicapped.	P	Equitable reimbursement for excess cost of instruction.
Ohio	Mentally handicapped. Physically handicapped.	P P	As above.
	Slow-learning.	P; M for crippled upon direction of state Superintendent of Public Instruction.	Excess cost up to \$300 per pupil; plus transportation costs and \$250 per pupil for maintenance of nonresident pupils. \$1,000 per teaching unit of 24 or more pupils served by a teacher on circuit. \$750 per teaching unit of 12 pupils, plus cost of transportation of nonresident pupils. (Children with multiple defects may be counted for each defect.)
Oklahoma	Physically handicapped.	P	Excess cost up to \$200 per pupil; plus transportation and boarding (up to \$250) for nonresident pupils.
	Mentally handicapped.	P	\$750 per teaching unit of not less than 6 children; plus transportation and boarding (up to \$250) for nonresident pupils.
Oregon	Physically handicapped.	M (with approval of state Superintendent of Public Instruction).	Excess cost up to 1½ times the per capita cost of educating nonhandicapped children.
	Maladjusted (exclusive of mental retardation).	P	As above.

‡ Quota for classes of fewer than 10 is \$80 per pupil.

TABLE 34: Basic Legal Provisions for State-Aided Programs of Special Education in Local School Districts in 1948 (cont'd)

STATE	CHILDREN SPECIFIED BY LAW OR	PERMISSIVE (P) OR MANDATORY (M)	BASIS OF ANNUAL STATE AID
Pennsylvania	Physically handicapped.	M for 10 or more children.	\$30 per pupil in average daily membership of class; for home instruction, an amount determined by applying state financial formula.
	Mentally handicapped.	As above.	\$20 per pupil in average daily membership of class.
South Dakota	Crippled in hospitals.	P	Special appropriation for administrative allotment.
Tennessee	Physically handicapped (excluding those eligible for state schools for blind and deaf).	P	Special appropriation for administrative allotment.
Texas	Physically handicapped (except those eligible for state schools).	P	Excess cost up to \$200 per pupil.
Virginia	Not specified by law. §	P	Special appropriation for administrative allotment.
Washington	Physically handicapped.	P	Administrative allocations made from special funds.
West Virginia	Home-bound crippled children.	P	Special appropriation for administrative allotment.
Wisconsin	Physically handicapped.	P	Reimbursement for amount expended, as approved by the state Superintendent; full cost of transportation and maintenance for nonresident pupils.
	Mentally handicapped.	P	As above.
Wyoming	Physically handicapped.	M (upon state Board of Education's approval).	All necessary expenses allowed by state Board of Education; full cost of home instruction.
	Mentally handicapped.	As above.	Special appropriation for administrative allotment.

[§] Classes for "blind and partially blind" children are operated jointly by local school boards and the Virginia Commission for the Blind.

WHAT THE BUILDING PRINCIPAL NEEDS TO KNOW

Every school, regardless of its size or its urban or rural location, has some pupils who would be classed as exceptional in accordance with current legal and popular interpretation of the term *special education*. All children have some problems which command special attention by the school, but the so-called exceptional children have some problems which are sufficiently different so as to require specialized attention and services. Every principal, therefore, needs to be well enough versed in the field of special education to avoid becoming guilty of neglect or mishandling of the exceptional children who attend his school. Every principal should make an effort to take at least a survey course in the education of exceptional children and to do some professional reading annually in this field. Those who cannot avail themselves of college courses in special education are under even greater obligation to engage in professional reading. The bibliography at the end of this chapter has been made much longer and more complete than in other chapters to provide the principal with a list of pertinent source materials.

There are six major areas in which every principal needs at least a "safety minimum" of information and understanding. The first of these areas consists of an acquaintanceship with the major types of exceptional children and the major characteristics or identifying features of each. Unless one has at least this amount of information one is apt to overlook the cases in his midst. It is especially easy to fail to identify pupils with hearing or vision loss, those of lowered vitality, and those suffering from incipient but potentially serious problems of emotional and social adjustment. Regular vision and hearing surveys discussed in Chapter 11 are useful in this regard.

Perhaps it is trite to stress the importance of being well informed about the laws and state-level regulations pertaining to the education of exceptional children in your own state. State laws and regulations do vary from state to state, and many principals are not adequately informed about the official circumstances in their own states. Consequently they overlook atypical children in their own schools or are nonplussed about what to do or what information to give parents if cases are brought to their attention.

A principal who is well informed in the preceding two areas usually is equally well equipped in the third area, which consists of acquaintanceship with the resources available to exceptional children in his own community. First priority should be given to services made available by the local school system. Services provided by voluntary and official agencies in the community other than the school system are equally important because these, as a rule, take care of cases which cannot qualify for or supplement the services provided by the schools. Principals in rural schools should also know what types of pupils can receive help in neigh-

boring communities and their school systems. Familiarity with state institutions, their location, and the types of cases taken by them is usually most helpful. A directory of out-of-state private and public institutions should be available. Information about private and public agencies in the state and elsewhere can be obtained by telephoning the local school system's director or supervisor of special education or by writing the proper person in one's state department of education or the Children's Bureau in the Federal Security Agency, Washington, D. C.⁷

Knowledge of the resources available also includes information about the diagnostic services available locally or accessible in near-by places. City school systems, at least the larger ones, have speech therapists, psychologists, and psychiatrists on their own staffs or available by prior agreement. Smaller school systems and rural areas usually must rely upon specialists in the nearest center that has them. Recommendations made in Chapter 11 regarding official school-board agreements with specialists in neighboring cities apply here. The essential points are that special work with exceptional pupils should not be undertaken without a prior thorough examination and advice of an appropriate specialist, and that the principal should know where the specialists may be reached.

Knowledge in the three preceding categories leads to the fourth area, namely, how to proceed. If the local school system has an organized program for the education of exceptional children, there is likely to be found a well-ordered plan in accordance with which the principal can proceed in having the case brought to the attention of the proper authorities in the school system and the follow-up routines. Principals, however, need to be alert to make sure that the follow-through on the case is prompt and complete. In school systems not having special schools or classes, the principal needs to develop the procedures to be used in cooperation with the superintendent of schools, or with the school board in very small districts.

The fifth area in which the principal must be reasonably well informed consists of the ways in which the regular classroom teachers can serve exceptional children. Some of the roles of the classroom teacher were described in Chapter 11 in connection with classroom provisions for children with impaired vision or hearing and children of lowered vitality. Other important contributions of the teacher will be identified in a later section in this chapter.

Reasonably adequate and up-to-date information about current trends, educational policies, and controversial issues in the education of exceptional children comprises the sixth area in which the principal needs to

⁷ A list of agencies and associations interested in exceptional children is given in National Society for the Study of Education, *The Education of Exceptional Children*, Forty-ninth Yearbook, Part II (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1950), pp. 335-346.

know his way around. The subsequent sections of this chapter were designed to assist principals in obtaining an orientation to at least some of the items that might be classified in the sixth category.

THE MENTALLY RETARDED

Confusion in terminology has helped to muddy the water in the evolving program of appropriate educational provisions for children whose mental capacities are sufficiently limited to cause them to have severe difficulties in responding successfully to the typical school program. Such terms as mental deficiency, feeble-minded, idiot, imbecile, moron, mentally retarded, and slow-learners have been used. In some instances such terms as slow-learners and mentally retarded were introduced to soften the harshness for parents and pupils. The general concept of mental deficiency includes all persons whose intellectual capacities are below the normal range; this would include all persons with an I.Q. below 85 or 90 if the I.Q. criterion is used. Idiots include those who at maturity are unable to care for their personal needs. Imbeciles include those who can be taught to care for their personal needs and who can acquire some skills that will enable them to do certain types of work under constant supervision.⁸ Idiots do not attain an ultimate mental age much above two years, whereas imbeciles have mental ages ranging from three to seven years at maturity. Idiots are considered uneducable and imbeciles can be trained to only a small degree. Idiots and imbeciles are usually exempt or legally excluded from school attendance.

Morons are those who achieve an ultimate mental age of eight or nine years. Their I.Q.'s range between about 45 and 55. They are capable of achieving a fourth-grade or fifth-grade level of attainment. They often get along in a community in which life is simple and where no great demands are made upon them in activities requiring planning, insight, and judgment. The remaining segment of the mentally below-normal group in the pupil population consists of children with I.Q.'s between about 55 or 60 and 85 or 90. Those with I.Q.'s between 70 and 85 or 90 are called dull-normal. All children with I.Q.'s below about 70 are classed as feeble-minded.

The group usually considered eligible for special classes consists of those with I.Q.'s between 50 and 70 or 75. Kelly and Stevens recommended an I.Q. range from 50 to 79.⁹ In school circles, those eligible for special classes are commonly called mentally retarded, thus giving a

⁸ Karl C. Garrison, *The Psychology of Exceptional Children* (New York, The Ronald Press Co., 1950), pp. 121.

⁹ Elizabeth M. Kelly and Harvey A. Stevens, "Special Education for the Mentally Handicapped," National Society for the Study of Education, *The Education of Exceptional Children*, op. cit., p. 242.

specialized meaning to the latter term because it includes only a selected bracket (those with I.Q.'s between 50 and 70 or 75 or 79) of all who fall within the broader category of mentally deficient. Special classes for the mentally retarded may include some morons, some higher grade feeble-minded who have I.Q.'s between 55 or 60 and 70, and some who fall in the lower part of the distribution of pupils classified as dull-normal. How many of the latter group will be included depends upon whether the upper I.Q. limit of special class candidates is set at 70 or at some point between 70 and 79.

Selecting children for classes for the mentally retarded poses a difficult problem. Intelligence tests, if used alone, are not an adequate criterion. Some children do better on performance type than on the verbal type tests. Questions are also being raised now about the suitability of the typical intelligence test for children coming from noticeably different cultural backgrounds. In all cases an individual type of intelligence test should be used and it should be administered by a trained person. Information obtained from the administration of an individual intelligence test should be supplemented by observational data and judgments regarding the child's ability to learn, his aptitudes and performance in various task situations, and his social adjustment and competence.

A reasonably coherent curriculum philosophy for mentally retarded children has evolved. Most authorities now agree that education for the mentally retarded is *not different in its aim* from education for any group of children. The general purposes of education, as set forth in Chapter 2, apply to the mentally retarded as well as the so-called normal children. Self-realization, social and civic competence, and vocational efficiency are important for all children, each in accordance with his capacity. A careful examination of each of the sub-items listed in Chapter 2 under Purposes of Education in American Democracy will reveal the mentally retarded child's need for development in each area up to his capacity. The only important distinction that must be recognized is that the mentally retarded child cannot be expected to climb as high up the ladder of development and learning as his more able neighbor. If comparable development were possible, there would be little need for special classes for the mentally retarded.

The current curriculum philosophy for the mentally retarded embodies all of the elements of modern methods and materials; adapting instruction to individual differences; the use of unit organization of teaching-learning situations; and the use of many and varied activities and learning media. Handicraft activities still find a place in the program but are utilized for the same purposes as with regular classes. The day has passed when mentally retarded pupils were thought incapable of learnings in the three R's and as having no need for literacy. No longer do mentally retarded pupils engage all day in brush-making, rug-weaving, chair-caning, and in

making knick-knacks of wood, metal, clay, raffia, and leather without consideration of the need for integrative development of the individual through cooperative social action of the group. At least minimum levels of social and vocational competence are sought in terms of realistic life situations of today's society.

Although special classes for the mentally retarded have increased greatly during the past 30 years (Tables 32 and 33), there are still over 600,000 eligible pupils who are not being reached. One reason why so many eligible pupils are not in special classes is that special classes for the mentally retarded are seldom found in the smaller cities, villages, and rural areas. The sparsity of cases in the less populated areas makes it impractical for individual school districts to organize such classes. At present there appears to be no feasible solution to this problem.

The absence of special classes for the mentally retarded in so many places means that most of these pupils continue as students in regular classes. Some authorities have estimated that 85 per cent of mentally retarded pupils are found in regular classes. The many ways in which the presence of these pupils complicates the task of regular class teachers can be visualized readily. In addition, all schools have the dull-normal group with I.Q.'s between 70 or 79 to 85 or 90. These, too, require adaptation of curriculum and academic expectation. It is hoped that the suggestions given in Chapters 5, 6, and 11 will be helpful in meeting the problems of all children with less than average ability who may be found in a school's regular classes.

GIFTED CHILDREN

Throughout history man has concerned himself with the problems of appropriate education for mentally superior children. In ancient Athens Plato speculated upon ways of discovering gifted children in order to educate them for leadership in the state. During the sixteenth century a Mohammedan ruler sent emissaries throughout the Turkish Empire at regular intervals to scout for the "fairest, strongest, and most intelligent youth" to be trained as leaders.¹⁰ In the United States the school's interest in the education of superior children is divided into three epochs by Bentley.¹¹ The first epoch, extending from 1867 to 1899, he describes as the period of flexible promotion. Quarterly promotions in St. Louis and the Pueblo, Cambridge, Elizabeth, Portland, Batavia, North Denver, and Santa Barbara plans are characteristic methods of this period (see Chapter 1, Table 4 for details). The second epoch extended from 1900 to 1919 and was characterized by the use of acceleration as the chief device for ad-

¹⁰ Merle R. Sumption, *Three Hundred Gifted Children* (Yonkers, N. Y., World Book Co., 1941), pp. 1-3.

¹¹ John E. Bentley, *Superior Children* (New York, W. W. Norton and Co., 1937), pp. 192-193.

justing the school's offering to superior pupils. The third epoch began in about 1920 and introduced the idea of curriculum enrichment as contrasted with the time-saving feature of the methods used prior to this time. Curriculum enrichment was fostered through differentiated assignments, intraclass grouping, ability grouping, and special classes. Louisville, Kentucky, is credited with having established the first public school class organized explicitly for gifted children in 1918, although some writers say that an experimental class for gifted children was started in Los Angeles in 1915, whereas others cite Cleveland, Ohio, as the pioneer in 1921. Other cities that were early pioneers in special classes for the gifted are Rochester, New York; New York City; Oakland, California; Richmond, Indiana; Toledo, Ohio; and Seattle, Washington. In 1948, 15 cities in 11 states reported 20,712 children enrolled in special classes for mentally gifted pupils (Table 32).

Theoretically about 2 per cent of the school population could be classified as gifted. This means that in an elementary school enrolling 500 pupils about 10 pupils would be in the gifted category. Normally these 10 pupils would be distributed among all the grades housed in the school. Identifying the gifted pupils is not an easy task. Studies have shown the unreliability of teachers' judgments and the elements involved when teachers are asked to identify the gifted children in their classes. Frequently the so-called lazy or disinterested pupil is the gifted child; his listlessness is due to boredom. Individual intelligence tests provide the most reliable basis for determining intellectual capacity. Group intelligence tests may be used to identify those who should be given a follow-up with an individual test. The term "gifted" has different connotations among writers in this field. Some maintain that all pupils with I.Q.'s of 120 and over should be classed as gifted; others use an I.Q. of 125, 130, or 140 as the lower limit. School systems generally tend to use 120 or 125 I.Q. as the lower limit of intelligence for placement in special classes. The term *genius* refers only to those with I.Q.'s of 180 and over.

In the identification of gifted children, measures of intelligence should be supplemented with other information. Physical, emotional, intellectual, and volitional traits operate in total pattern combinations which cannot be measured separately without distorting the total picture. Also, there are some children who have high endowments in music, art, mechanical skills, or literary talents whose scores on general intelligence tests would not place them in the category of gifted pupils.

A reasonably coherent curriculum philosophy is emerging with reference to the education of the gifted. Enrichment is preferred rather than acceleration, although research has shown that limited amounts of acceleration are not detrimental. Gifted children have been shown to be slightly larger, stronger, healthier, and better adjusted socially than the general average of the school population. If these several factors are positive in

a given case, a one-year accelerated placement in school should not prove harmful. Excessive acceleration is unwise but moderate acceleration, particularly in high school or college, is not inadvisable when the individual is physically and socially mature for his age.

The objectives in the education of gifted are the same as for other children. Gifted children should not be given a *different kind* of education; the emphasis lies, rather, in securing greater creative effort, greater intellectual initiative, critical thinking, social adjustment, social responsibility, and the development of unselfish qualities of leadership.¹² Extensive descriptions of instructional programs in special classes for the gifted have been provided by Hildreth¹³ and Sumption.¹⁴ In 1941 the campus laboratory school at Hunter College in New York City was converted into a special school for gifted children. Hildreth's description of the curriculum in this school states that the goals are little different from those for all children, except that the gifted need broader offerings, more advanced work, and their special gifts require more highly individualized teaching. The goals of the school place emphasis upon health and recreation, mental health and adjustment, learning to become an economically efficient producing and consuming citizen, skill in social relations, world citizenship, and education for initiative and originality. An effort is made to incorporate in the program the best that is known in the old and the new viewpoints on child development, curriculum design, and methods of teaching.

Cleveland, Ohio, presents the best example of a large city that has had a system-wide program of special classes for gifted children over a long period of years. In Cleveland the special classes are called "Major Work Classes." The first class was begun in the Denison Elementary School in October, 1921. In 1922 five more classes were started in four other elementary schools in the system. Major Work Classes were organized in one junior high school in 1925. Since that time more elementary, junior, and senior high schools have become centers for Major Work Classes. By 1940 the program had been expanded to include 1200 children in 17 centers, each center serving gifted children from a group of neighboring elementary, junior, or senior high schools.

The objectives of instruction in the Cleveland Major Work Classes are about the same as those enumerated for the Hunter College laboratory school. Enrichment is the keynote on which Major Work Class education is built. This means that these pupils accomplish more than pupils in regular classes. They branch out on a richer program of work suitable to their ages and interests but not encroaching upon the work of the grades

¹² Merle R. Sumption, Dorothy Norris, and Lewis M. Terman, "Special Education for the Gifted Child," National Society for the Study of Education, *The Education of Exceptional Children*, *op. cit.*, p. 278.

¹³ Gertrude H. Hildreth, *Educating Gifted Children* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1952), Ch. 3.

¹⁴ Sumption, *op. cit.*, Ch. 2.

beyond. Enrichment is brought about by added opportunities in art, intensive work in language and literature, typewriting, writing and producing plays, making reports to the class, reviewing books, and writing stories, articles, and editorials for the school paper.

In Cleveland, as well as in most other special classes for the gifted, French is studied in the elementary grades, beginning in the primary grades, usually the third grade. In the early stages this language instruction is entirely oral, with emphasis upon accurate pronunciation, comprehension, and fluency in conversation. The study of French is thought to offer enrichment as well as an intellectual challenge because pupils are not likely to pick up French outside of school. French also provides a good basis upon which to branch out in the study of other languages in the secondary school. A knowledge of French also has special vocational values in international relations.

Among the many unanswered questions about the best educational program for gifted children, three in particular confront the elementary-school principal. One of these is the identification of the pupils who are gifted. Teacher judgment is frequently unreliable. Group mental tests are helpful, but those scoring high on group tests should be examined by the use of an individual mental test. This is the point at which many schools are handicapped because they do not have available a person suitably trained in the administration of the individual test. Frequently those who do not secure I. Q.'s of 120 or over on group tests have high-level talents in specialized areas. Usually schools do not have adequate tools for identifying and measuring the degree of special talent. The net result of these several operating factors is that a large proportion of gifted children go unrecognized. Every school, therefore, should strive to sharpen teacher observation and to utilize as many objective procedures as possible in order to identify an increasing proportion of those who have superior intelligence or special talents.

The second issue is one of educational policy. Writers in this field are sharply divided into two groups, those who advocate segregation of gifted children into special classes and those who feel that curriculum enrichment for the gifted should be made through membership in regular classes. The latter group believes that segregation leads to the development of undesirable attitudes, nurtures social misfits, and deprives children of valuable social experience. The proponents of special classes maintain that under favorable conditions the placement of gifted children in separate classes can facilitate both curriculum enrichment and rapid advancement without requiring close association with others who are much more mature physically and socially. A few individuals see a compromise between these two opposing viewpoints by providing segregation for only a portion of the school day. Unfortunately research has not given us clear-cut guides on this issue. Nearly a dozen studies have dealt with various phases of

evaluation of education of gifted children, but the evidence is still inadequate regarding the best curriculum policy.¹⁵

The third issue is the very practical problem of what to do in a given elementary school. A school system must have a scholastic population of 3000 to 4000 of elementary-school age before 2 per cent of that population would net enough pupils to make three special classes, a first and second grade combination, a third and fourth grade combination, and a fifth and sixth grade combination. These figures suggest that special classes for the gifted, even if deemed desirable, would be confined to the larger population centers. The majority of elementary schools are found in smaller communities. Full-time special classes are ruled out by the circumstances. The only alternative available to the school in the small community is that of serving the needs of gifted children through curriculum adaptation, enrichment, and more leadership opportunities within the pattern of regular classes. Most principals, therefore, must concentrate their efforts upon more complete identification of the gifted pupils in their classes and upon helping teachers to provide the needed challenges and enrichment through adaptation of instruction to individual differences.¹⁶ Present school practices in this regard are so inadequate that the education of gifted children would receive a tremendous boost if all schools would do everything that is possible within the organizational setup and resources now available to them.

CHILDREN WITH IMPAIRED VISION

The school recognizes two groups of children with impaired vision, the blind and the partially seeing. Children are considered "blind" for educational purposes when they have a visual acuity of 20/200 or less in the better eye with correcting glasses or with an equally handicapping defect in the visual field. Partially sighted children are usually considered eligible for sight-saving classes if they meet one or more of the following criteria: (1) have visual acuity between 20/70 and 20/200 in the better eye after refraction; (2) have progressive eye difficulties; (3) suffer from noncommunicable diseases of the eye or diseases of the body that severely affect vision; and (4) have temporary impairment of vision as a result of operation, disease, or accident. In selecting cases for special class assignment it is necessary to consider factors of health, social adjustment, and general maturity as well as diagnosed conditions of vision; the total child growing up in his environment must not be overlooked even though the vision factors are of prime importance.

¹⁵ These studies are summarized in *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, rev. ed. (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1950), pp. 508-509.

¹⁶ Elise H. Martens, *Curriculum Adjustments for Gifted Children*, Bulletin No. 1 (Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1946).

Identification of children with impaired vision is less difficult than finding the gifted or the mentally retarded. Vision screening tests given annually to all children, as described in Chapter 11, are the first step in locating the pupils with impaired vision. Of course most of the children found to have inadequate vision by the screening tests will be able to have their deficiencies corrected with glasses, but there will be a few pupils whose vision is found to be sufficiently poor so that they may be eligible for special classes even after maximum refraction has taken place. Frequently special effort must be made to find "hidden children" in the community; these are children with severe vision or other handicaps whose parents keep them more or less "under cover" and do not enroll them in school.



FIG. 18: A small group of partially-seeing children enjoying a recording. Courtesy of the Oak Park, Ill., Public Schools and the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness.

Among school-age children approximately 1 in 5000 is blind and 1 in 500 is partially seeing. These two groups together constitute about 0.2 per cent of the school population. The small incidence of blind children makes it necessary for most of them to be educated in residential schools; only the large cities have enough cases to establish special classes for the blind. In recent years, however, school systems that have special classes for the partially sighted also serve the blind children through special classes. Partially-seeing children should not be educated with blind children.

The incidence of blind and partially sighted children is such that special classes are feasible only in the school systems in which from five to eight or more eligible pupils are identified. Even though special classes organized on a cooperative basis by a number of contiguous school districts in villages and rural areas are needed and should be encouraged, the fact remains that at present they exist in only a few scattered areas. This means that in the majority of elementary schools children with varying degrees of vision loss must be accommodated in regular classes. Special responsibilities are thus placed upon the principals and teachers in such schools.

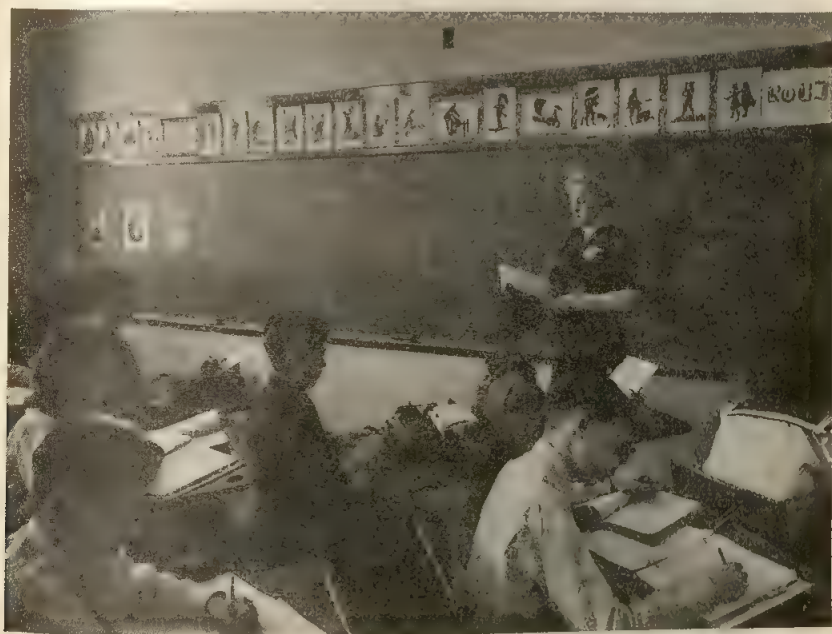


FIG. 19: Low-visioned children participating with normal children in regular class activity. Note the large writing on the chalkboard. Courtesy of Detroit, Mich., Public Schools and National Society for the Prevention of Blindness.

The philosophy regarding the education of partially-seeing children has changed rather markedly within the last few years. Full-time assignment in the traditional sight-saving class is no longer considered the most acceptable method. The cooperative placement plan is now recommended by leaders in this field. Under this plan the child has his primary placement in a regular class with his age mates. During certain periods of the day, while he is engaging in reading assignments, he goes to the sight-saving room where large type materials, other special learning aids, and a special teacher are available to him. In some schools the special sight-saving room has been replaced by having a special teacher work with

the regular teachers in the use of large-type reading materials and other special learning aids.

The educational objectives for children with impaired vision are the same as for other children (Figs. 18 and 19). A well-adjusted, self-supporting individual who can lead a near-normal life is the ultimate goal. For some, their education and subsequent literary pursuits will have to be in Braille. All will need understanding nurture and many kinds of special help. Where special classes are available, specially trained teachers can assist them in the use of materials with large type or help them learn Braille.¹⁷ Since all schools are likely to have some children with less than normal vision, it is important that all schools have some reading materials with large type.¹⁸ All schools can benefit from appraising local practices in terms of the following guide published by the Illinois State Department of Public Instruction:¹⁹

1. Place seats and desks in the position which will give the best illumination on the children's work and protect them from glare. If seats are placed at an angle of 30 degrees from the windows, no child faces the light or sits in his own shadow. Left-handed children should have light from their right.
2. Give careful attention to both natural and artificial illumination. All light, whether natural or artificial, should be adequate for the type of work undertaken. Good classroom lighting is well diffused, evenly distributed throughout the room and free from glare, objectionable shadows, and strong contrasts. . . .
3. Keep shades adjusted to permit the best natural light without glare.
4. Do not sit or stand between the children and the window. Such a position requires the children to face the light when looking at the teacher.
5. Seat the visually handicapped child in the best lighted place in the room. Since he has poorer vision than any other member of the class, he should be placed in a position in which he can have sufficient light, see the blackboard, see the face of the teacher, or any other person who might be talking to the class, and avoid the glare from shiny surfaces or exposed light.
6. See that he has very black lead pencils, dull unglazed paper, and books with as large clear type as possible. . . .
7. Prepare copies of tests and other materials for him in large clear script or manuscript, rather than have him strain his eyes copying from the board. Copy work is especially hard for a person with a severe visual handicap.

¹⁷ Winifred Hathaway, *Education of the Partially Seeing Child*, rev. ed. (New York, Columbia University Press, 1947); National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, *Suggested Equipment for Partially Seeing Pupils* (New York, the Society, 1948).

¹⁸ Lorraine Galisdorfer, *A New Annotated Reading Guide for Children with Partial Vision* (Buffalo, N. Y., Foster and Stewart Publishing Co., 1950); Charlotte Matson and Lola Larson, *Books for Tired Eyes: A List of Books in Large Print*, 4th ed. (Chicago, American Library Association, 1951).

¹⁹ *The Illinois Plan for Special Education of Exceptional Children, The Visually Defective*, Circular Series D, No. 12 (Springfield, State Department of Public Instruction), pp. 38-39.

8. Place all board work on the best lighted portion of the board in large clear writing or manuscript, using large, soft, white or yellow chalk.
9. Permit the visually handicapped child to write larger than average, and if manuscript is easier for him, he should be encouraged to use it. If a typewriter is available, the use of it will save him untold eye strain.
10. Appoint a pupil reader for him, preferably a child in the same class who reads well, and who is capable of discussing materials he reads with the visually handicapped child. This helper can relieve the teacher much time-consuming work and the handicapped child of much eyestrain caused by the lengthy reading assignments. Reading should be considered a tool for the visually handicapped child, rather than a leisure-time activity.
11. Eliminate as much home work as possible. Encourage use of the ear rather than the eye as the organ of learning. The discriminate use of the radio is particularly encouraged for both home and school as a tool for learning.
12. Discuss the pupils eye condition with the parent and doctor, and follow the doctor's recommendation concerning use of the eyes. Encourage regular visitation to the doctor.
13. Teach eye hygiene as a definite part of classroom work. Help the visually handicapped child develop a sane attitude toward his handicap and adapt himself to it.
14. Make every effort possible to get him in a sight-saving class. Perhaps a thorough screening program in the local and nearby communities will reveal sufficient number of cases to establish a sight-saving class.

CHILDREN WITH IMPAIRED HEARING

A child's hearing may be considered within the normal range if neither ear has a loss of more than 10 to 15 decibels. The normal range in hearing includes the tones found between middle *C* and the highest *C* on the standard piano keyboard. This is the range of tones that it is important to hear in order to be able to understand speech. A person with normal hearing will be able to hear many tones above and below this speech range, but it is not necessary to be able to hear these other tones in order to understand speech. Two things are measured when a person's hearing is tested. One of them is the *range* of tones that the person can hear; the other is the power, intensity, or "*loudness*" that is necessary before each tone can be heard. In the testing of hearing the audiometer dial is set at zero to represent normal hearing, that is, the "*loudness*" essential for normal hearing. If the power or loudness of a tone has to be increased by, say 50 decibels, before a child can hear it, we say that the child has a hearing loss of 50 decibels for that tone.²⁰

Children with impaired hearing may be divided into four groups. Group A consists of those with slight hearing loss, i. e., those with average losses of 20 decibels or less in the speech range of the better ear as measured by

²⁰ For a simplified discussion of this topic, see Miriam F. Fielder, *Deaf Children in a Hearing World* (New York, The Ronald Press Co., 1952), Ch. 19.

the pure-tone audiometer.²¹ These children generally show no educational maladjustment as a result of their slight hearing loss. This group usually needs no special consideration other than favorable seating in the classroom. Group B includes pupils with hearing losses of from 25 to 50 or 55 decibels in the better ear. These children are considered as having moderate losses; they are the hard-of-hearing children. They may show some evidence of difficulty in personal, educational, and social adjustment but generally they are able to receive their education in classes for normally-hearing children, provided they are favorably seated, receive speech training if necessary, and learn speech reading (a term synonymous with lip reading). Those whose loss is 35 or more decibels in the better ear should have hearing aids and receive auditory training. Many of the latter group will require part-time placement in special classes. Group C contains children with marked hearing losses. They are on the borderline between the hard-of-hearing and the deaf. They do not have enough hearing to learn language and speech with the unaided ear, but they have residual hearing which can be utilized in their education. Their hearing losses range from 55 or 60 to 65 or 75 decibels in the better ear. They are usually the children who have had a sustained loss from early childhood. They are considered "educationally deaf" since they require instruction specially designed to foster the acquisition of language and speech even when they make optimum use of their residual hearing with the help of a hearing aid (Fig. 20). They are all candidates for the special class or the residential school for the deaf. Group D consists of children whose hearing losses range from 70 or 75 decibels to inability to distinguish more than one or two frequencies at the highest measurable level of intensity. All of them should have placement in a special class or a residential school. These four groups of pupils with impaired hearing comprise about 1.5 per cent of the school population, although some writers accept an average of 5 per cent, whereas still others go as high as 12 per cent. No doubt incidence variations among communities account for some of the differences in estimated percentages.

Identifying children with impaired hearing is the school's first task. Periodically administered screening tests for hearing were discussed in Chapter 11. Those who are found to have less than normal hearing should be tested with a pure-tone audiometer. Individual tests are more reliable than group audiometer tests. Children in Groups C and D are usually identified quite easily because they do not respond to normal speech by others, especially if the speaker is not directly in front of the child or if the speech is in a low tone. Invariably the parents are aware of the hearing loss in these pupils and inform the school of the condition. Those in Groups A and B, particularly

²¹ H. Newhart and S. Reger, *Syllabus of Audiometric Procedures in the Administration of a Program for the Conservation of Hearing of School Children* (American Academy of Ophthalmology and Otolaryngology, Omaha, Nebr., Douglas Print Co., April, 1945).

those in Group A, are more difficult to identify. Hard-of-hearing children are themselves often unaware of their hearing losses since they have no standards against which to judge themselves. A slightly hard-of-hearing child may make mistakes in enunciation and pronunciation and may occasionally ask to have a statement repeated or he may have difficulty in understanding faint speech at a distance. The child with a loss in only one ear may



FIG. 20: Speech-reading instruction at Casis School, Austin, Texas. Auditory training is stimulated through use of a high-powered group hearing aid. The individual binaural control enables each child to regulate the intensity of sound according to his needs. Initially the children were taught to discriminate between gross sounds. They have progressed to finding phrases on the chalkboard.

turn his head to favor himself while listening. Nonresponse to the conversation or directions of others, misunderstandings, and turning of the head frequently increases in prominence as the degree of hearing loss increases. The acquisition of appropriately fitted hearing aids frequently enables these children to function adequately in the normal classroom situation.²²

²² A list of approved hearing aids may be secured by writing to the Council on Physical Therapy, American Medical Association, 535 N. Dearborn Street, Chicago, Ill.

CHILDREN WITH SPEECH PROBLEMS

Development of speech varies so much in children that it is often difficult to ascertain whether a particular child's speech idiosyncrasies are merely characteristics of the speech he learned or are genuine speech difficulties. Speech is learned primarily by imitation of the speech used by parents and others in the household. If the mother or father lisp or stutter, the child may lisp or stutter. If the child always hears "ain't" instead of "isn't" or "larn" for "learn" or "beamin" for "beaming," the child will appropriate similar speech habits. Speech idiosyncrasies must not be mistaken for speech problems that merit the attention of a speech correctionist.

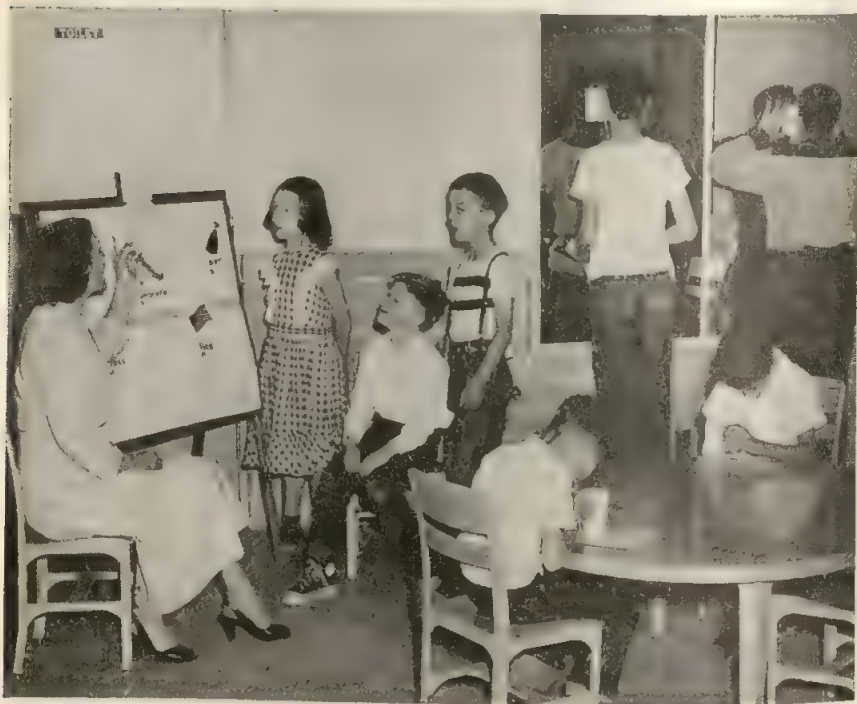


FIG. 21: Speech therapy, Casis School, Austin, Texas. Group therapy is one phase of a program designed to meet the individual needs of the child with a severe speech problem. Desirable social adjustment contributes to the ultimate correction of his speech disorder. A thorough analysis and appraisal of the child's speech and vocal mechanism precede the planned therapy.

The types of speech problems that are usually considered in the speech correction field may be grouped into five categories.²³ Functional articulatory defects are the most common type. They are exemplified by the omission

²³ The grouping used here is the one presented by Wendell Johnson in National Society for the Study of Education, *The Education of Exceptional Children*, op. cit., Ch. 10.

of certain sounds (such as saying "pay" for "play"), the substitution of one sound for another (as "fumb" for "thumb"), and the distortion of certain sounds (such as mushing or whistling the "s" sound or voicing some sounds so lightly that they are not heard). Most articulatory defects are caused by faulty learning, although some may be due to mouth deformities or faulty hearing. Children with functional articulatory defects make up 70 to 85 per cent of the speech-correction cases. At age six, children with so-called normal speech misarticulate 10 per cent of their sounds and cannot reasonably be regarded as speech defectives. This is one reason why those in need of special therapy are difficult to identify in the primary grades.

Voice problems may involve pitch, loudness, or quality. Defects of pitch are identified when the child pitches his voice too high or too low, or speaks in a monotonous fashion. A voice that is too loud or too low is found chiefly in children who are shy and do not "speak up" or who feel a strong need for recognition and use loud speech to attract attention. Loudness disorders are chiefly psychological in nature. Quality disorders are characterized by nasality, breathiness, hoarseness, and harshness. Unless there is an organic defect, nasality is caused by speaking with too narrow mouth openings. A breathy voice quality results from an excessive flow of air between the vocal cords and is usually a symptom of stage-fright or faulty habits of tone production. Hoarseness arises mainly from inflammation of the larynx and vocal cords.

Retarded speech development occurs in about 5 out of every 1,000 children in the early grades. The more common causes of delayed speech development are mental subnormality, illness or physical disability, an oversolicitous or overly harsh home environment, and intense shock, fright, or shame.²⁴

Stuttering (synonymous with "stammering" in current usage) is characterized by undue hesitancy, speech blockage, and repetition of words, phrases, and sounds. Stuttering is usually accompanied by tension, facial grimacing, eye-blinking, and other associated bodily movements. Stuttering must not be confused with the normal nonfluency of childhood or adult speech, motor incapacity affecting speech as found in some cases of brain damage, or neurotic speech blockage in adult life. The normal nonfluency of childhood is not a speech defect. The repetition of sounds, words, and phrases, even to the extent of 45 times per 1,000 spoken words, is typical for children between the ages of two and five. Stuttering is associated definitely with emotional tension and fear. The child is afraid that he will stutter, afraid that he may not be able to get started or to keep going fluently. In the great majority of cases stuttering is caused by parental anxieties concerning the normal imperfections of childhood speech. Stuttering usually begins during preschool years. If it starts at a later period, harsh or non-

²⁴ W. Johnson, S. Brown, J. Curtis, C. Edney, and J. Keaster, *Speech-Handicapped School Children* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1948), Ch. 4.

understanding teachers may cause the onset of stuttering as well as parents. The theory that forcing left-handed children to be righthanded causes stuttering has been discredited. It is more likely that the kind of parent or teacher that would force a child to change handedness would be the kind of person who would also create other circumstances that would precipitate stuttering.

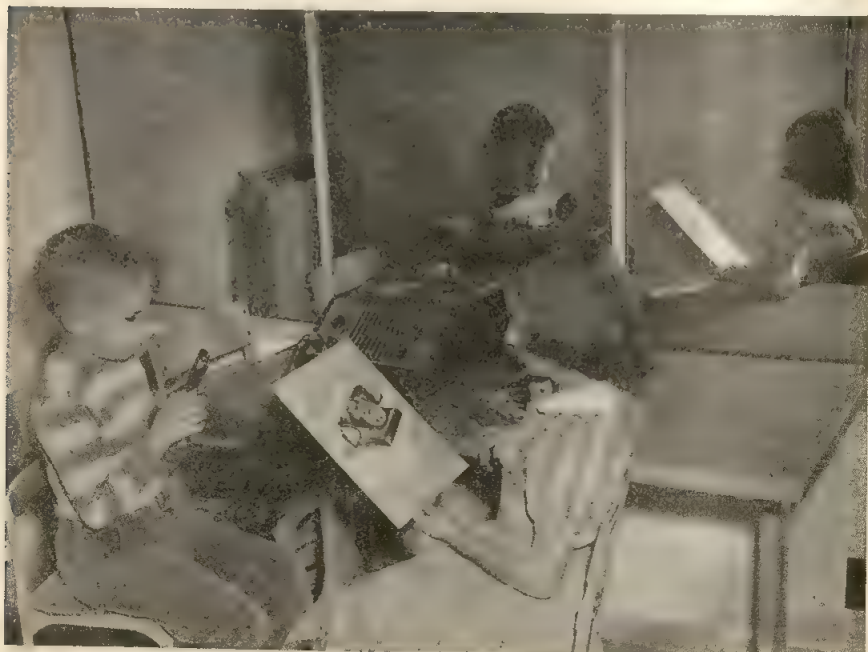


FIG. 22: At the Casis School, Austin, Texas, six small, practically soundproof, rooms permit individualized practice of planned speech activities. Progress is demonstrated when pupils with severe defects report daily for periods of 20 minutes; others come twice a week. Two of the small practice rooms are fitted with one-way vision glass which permits observation from an adjoining room and provides a mirror in the small practice room.

Organic speech disorders are associated with harelip, cleft palate, and cerebral palsy. About 1 child in 1800 is born with a harelip or cleft palate or both. Harelip is commonly repaired by surgery relatively soon after birth. Clefts of the hard or soft palate can, in most cases, be repaired by surgery. About 75 per cent of children with cerebral palsy have speech disorders of varying degrees of severity. Practically all children with organic speech disorders require speech therapy by a trained specialist.

The preceding highly abbreviated description of the five major groups of children's speech problems suggests many points at which diagnosis becomes difficult. Unless classroom teachers are well versed in the characteristics of normal speech development in children, many a child's speech deviation will be mistaken for a speech defect. This is particularly true with reference to

retarded speech development, voice problems, and functional articulatory defects. Many children who have minor deviations in one or more of the five categories can have their needs met in regular classrooms if the teachers have at least an introductory orientation to children's speech problems and what to do about them. In many cases it is more important to know what not to do than to know what specific aids should be given. The classroom teacher's role is so vital that all classroom teachers should have some college preparation in speech development and speech correction. With such preparation as a background the classroom teacher can perform more adequately her role in identifying the pupils who should be examined by a speech therapist and who might be considered as potential candidates for speech therapy (Figs. 21 and 22).

PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

Broadly speaking, physically handicapped children include those who suffer from any physical defect, either congenital or acquired, through disease or accident, whose educational or vocational pursuits are impeded because of the physical defect. This broad definition would include the blind and partially sighted, the deaf and hard-of-hearing, speech defectives, the crippled (orthopedically handicapped), the epileptic, and those of lowered vitality. Those with hearing, vision, or speech problems have been



FIG. 23: Some children need full-time placement in an orthopedic class. This picture shows the orthopedic classroom at the Casis School, Austin, Texas.



FIG. 24: Supervised rest periods in accordance with physicians' prescriptions at the Casis School, Austin, Texas.



FIG. 25: At the Casis School, Austin, Texas, all physical therapy is given according to prescription of the child's attending physician. Table games develop useful hand skills. Adjustable flying rings, stall bars, and pulley weights increase muscle strength, improve muscle tone, and are a part of the play activity necessary for the child's development.

discussed already, but it must be remembered that some children have multiple conditions (e.g., a hard-of-hearing child may also have speech difficulties or be crippled or both).

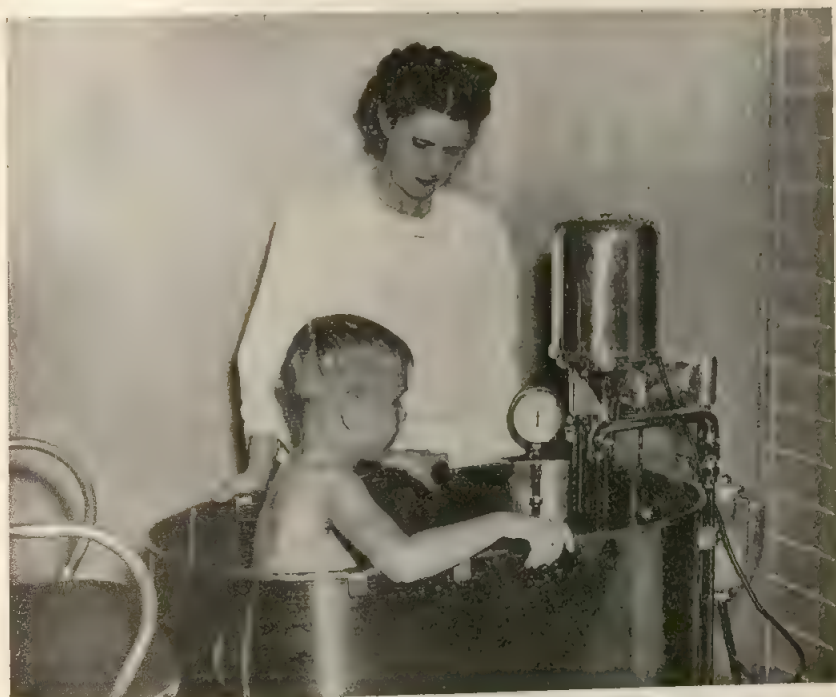


FIG. 26: The whirlpool bath provides moist heat and gentle massage for treatment of a child with both motor and sensory loss in lower extremities. Casis School, Austin, Texas.

Crippling conditions may result from infection (e.g., bone and joint tuberculosis, osteomyelitis, rheumatoid arthritis, syphilis), cerebral palsy, birth injury, cardiopathic irregularities, congenital anomalies (e.g., congenital amputation, dislocation, clubfoot, etc.), traumatic incidents (e.g., burns, fractures, amputation), tumors, developmental diseases, and various other factors such as fragile bones, spinal curvature, rickets, and muscular atrophy or dystrophy. Orthopedically handicapped children may be considered in four groups for educational purposes. The first group includes all children with mild deformities who are able to attend regular classes and who are able to participate to some extent in most of the usual school activities. Many of these children could benefit from corrective therapy but they need not be segregated full time into a special class.²⁵ The second group consists of those children who, because of the seriousness of their handicap, are unable to

²⁵ Eleanor B. Stone and John W. Deyton, *Corrective Therapy for the Handicapped Child* (New York, Prentice-Hall, 1951).

attend regular classes. These children require a modified educational program, full-time placement in a special class (Fig. 23), usually including physical therapy and special rest periods. The third group includes children who are confined to hospitals for an extended period of time; bedside teaching (sometimes called hospital instruction) is provided for all who are physically able to engage in some learning activities. The fourth group consists of homebound children who are well enough to partake of part-time instruction. Itinerant teachers visit homebound and hospital cases two or three times a week to help them make as much educational progress as possible while they are unable to attend school. Large children's hospitals may have one or more full-time teachers on their staffs.



FIG. 27: The Hubbard pool at the Casis School, Austin, Texas, provides sub-aqua massage for treatment of neuro-muscular conditions. The water is agitated electrically to provide muscle relaxation and to stimulate blood circulation. An electrically operated hoist is used to lower child into and out of the pool.

Epilepsy occurs in about 0.2 per cent of children. Misconceptions about the causes of epilepsy and the care of epileptics still abound; hence many children with this ailment are not reported by their parents and knowledge about such children's presence in society is largely accidental. Educable epileptic children should be accepted into the school program. As yet there is no clear-cut policy as to whether epileptic children should be segregated

into special classes or admitted to regular classes with nonepileptic children. No doubt the decision about class placement of individual cases must be decided on the basis of the frequency and severity of seizures, provisions for rest and recovery after seizures, and the extent to which the cooperation of classmates can be enlisted to maintain the afflicted child's status with the group.



FIG. 28: When prescribed by the physician, children receive treatment three times weekly in the therapeutic pool. Entrance to and egress from the pool may be by ramp or electric hoist.

The lowered vitality group includes the malnourished, those who have heart ailments or allergies (e.g., hayfever, asthma, eczema, hives), tuberculosis, post-polio cases, and those who suffer from disorders of glandular function. All children with lowered vitality need expert medical and home care. Some children with tuberculosis are strong enough, at least during the latter period of recovery, so that they may participate in home or hospital instruction. As soon as they become noninfectious they are eligible to attend school. Children of lowered vitality require many kinds of adjustments of their school programs. Some require no more than to be excused from strenuous physical activities. Others need a partial academic program and one or more rest periods during the day. Rest periods may also be essential for other types of physically handicapped children (Fig. 24).

Adjustments of the school program, types of physical, occupational, or hydro-therapy (Figs. 25, 26, 27, 28), and rest periods should be arranged under medical guidance and supervision. Most physically handicapped children need as much psychological assistance as they need medical or therapeutic service.²⁶ These children become very conscious of and sensitive about their handicaps. Unkind teasing and derogatory comments by other children, as well as the child's own inability to compete on a par with normal children, cause frustrations, hurt feelings, and antisocial attitudes. The handicapped child should be helped to accept his handicap, to achieve the greatest possible degree of self-acceptance, self-reliance, and adjustment to his limitations, and to acquire a philosophical attitude which will help him face the inevitable discussion of his handicap, the moments of being stared at, and other undesired attentions he will receive because of his physical condition. Teachers in regular classes can do much in interpreting the handicapped child to his classmates, to gain their understanding and acceptance, and to eliminate nagging, teasing, and imitating.

THE SOCIALLY MALADJUSTED

Hewitt and Jenkins identified three fundamental patterns of maladjustment: namely, (1) the unsocialized aggressive child who is aggressive toward all his associates, who shows loyalties to no one, and who has usually encountered an attitude of rejection on the part of his mother, and perhaps others, from early childhood; (2) the socialized delinquent who has had initial acceptance but was rejected later, who is aggressive toward society and its standards, but who has strong loyalties to his gang; and (3) the overinhibited child who has been subjected to a very repressive environment at home and who has never had a chance to develop an individuality and to make proper social adjustments.²⁷ Most educators consider any child socially maladjusted if he is characterized as a truant, delinquent, or incorrigible.

Stullken's survey of current school provisions for socially maladjusted children reveals the following general modes and levels of attack.²⁸ These provisions are: (1) the work and responsibility of regular classroom teachers (discussed in Chapter 11); (2) the employment of a counsellor to assist the teacher (also discussed in Chapter 11); (3) using the professional services of visiting teachers, psychologists, psychiatrists, or medical consultants (also discussed in Chapter 11); (4) the organization of one or more special classes to try new and different techniques; (5) the establishment of special schools

²⁶ James F. Garrett, ed., *Psychological Aspects of Physical Disability*, Rehabilitation Service Series No. 210 (Washington, Federal Security Agency, Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, 1952).

²⁷ Lester E. Hewitt and Richard L. Jenkins, *Fundamental Patterns of Maladjustment: The Dynamics of Their Origin* (Springfield, State of Illinois, 1946).

²⁸ Edward H. Stullken, "Special Schools and Classes for the Socially Maladjusted," National Society for the Study of Education, *The Education of the Exceptional Child*, op. cit., Ch. 15.

such as are found in large cities as Chicago, Detroit, and New York; and (6) transfer to a parental or custodial school maintained by the state or the school system.

On the average, about 2.5 per cent of school children are thought to have serious behavior problems. The incidence is smaller at the younger ages and larger during preadolescent and adolescent periods. In 1948, 12,184 socially maladjusted elementary-school pupils were enrolled in special schools and classes in city school systems. Public and private residential schools enrolled 22,745. Socially maladjusted children usually have attended more than the average number of schools, have often transferred from public to private or from private to public schools, have a large amount of overageness and retardation, low school achievement, a dislike for teachers, and a dislike for school.

Social maladjustment usually becomes evident while the child is still in the elementary school. Serious maladjustment and commitment to a parental or residential school may not take place until the child has reached the *age* of the typical junior-high-school or senior-high-school pupil, but, in general, the onset of maladjustment (and frequently the transfer to a special class or school) occurs while the student is still in the elementary grades. This is particularly true for the truant or delinquent who is noticeably overage for his grade placement. The elementary-school classroom teacher's role, the use of visiting teachers, and the role of the truant officer were discussed in Chapter 11. The relationships between social adjustment, grade placement, and ageness were discussed in Chapters 5 and 6. The reader is referred to these chapters to establish a clear relationship between the grouping and promotion practices and pupil personnel services and social maladjustment in pupils. The elementary school plays a constructive and preventive role to the extent that it is continuously concerned with children's wholesome social development and adjustment, and utilizes its administrative and organizational practices and pupil personnel services in effective ways. Placement in special class or school is used as a last resort after all other means have been exhausted.

HOSPITAL INSTRUCTION

Recent years have witnessed much activity aimed at the expansion of educational services for children hospitalized for extended periods of time. A 1949 survey revealed that approximately 1,850,000 children are admitted annually to the 5000 general hospitals in the United States. Some of the general hospitals have children's units and some do not. Special hospitals provide for a smaller group of children numbering about 91,000. The children in the special hospitals are usually long-term patients suffering from tuberculosis, contagious diseases, rheumatic fever, orthopedic disabilities, and various other ailments.

Short-term hospital patients usually do not need teacher services during their stay. The parents, the child's teacher and school, or classmates can provide the child with some books or a radio so the child can do some reading or radio listening during the latter days of his hospital stay when he is well enough to utilize his leisure hours with educationally profitable activities. Those who remain in hospitals for three or more weeks, however, and are well enough to engage in learning activities, should have the guidance of a qualified teacher. In 1948, 7521 crippled and 2422 delicate children were receiving instruction in hospitals (Figs. 29 and 30).



FIG. 29: Hospitalized children using the radio as an educational tool. Courtesy of Mrs. Mildred H. Walton, University Hospital School, University of Michigan.

Mental hygiene is becoming an increasingly important aspect of medical care and the rehabilitation of afflicted children. Medical specialists, therefore, see in part-time educational activities an important vehicle for maintaining optimum emotional and social adjustment. Since children are usually not permitted to visit in hospitals because of the danger of bringing communicable diseases to hospitalized children, the hospitalized child is cut off from his friends and classmates. As soon as the hospitalized child is well enough, his foremost thoughts are about his classmates, his school, and his own educational progress. Provision for the continuity of schooling thus helps the hospitalized child to keep from worrying about his own educational progress and helps him to feel that he is doing many of the things he and his classmates would be doing if he were back in his own school. Part-time instruction while hospitalized enables the child to keep at least somewhat

abreast with the school program so that he will be more able to join his own class group upon his return to school.²⁹

The school system is appropriately responsible for providing teachers for instruction of the hospitalized. The public schools are responsible for teaching all educable children in the district; this includes teaching children who have extended hospital confinements. Usually hospital instruction is planned as an integral part of a school system's program for the education of exceptional children. It is only in some special hospitals that the hospital budget provides for the salaries of teachers and the necessary teaching equipment and supplies.



FIG. 30: Class activities in a hospital. Courtesy of Mrs. Mildred H. Walton, University Hospital School, University of Michigan.

TEACHING THE HOMEBOUND

Some children who are unable to attend school must remain at home. Perhaps the parents cannot afford hospitalization, or home care is adequate for his needs and there is no reason to usurp a hospital bed. His school building may be inaccessible because of high steps leading up to it, or a

²⁹ W. B. Schoenbohm, "Planning a Hospital-School," *Crippled Child*, Vol. 28 (December, 1950), pp. 21-23, 29; Mildred H. Walton, "When the Child Is in the Hospital," *Journal of the National Education Association*, Vol. 40 (October, 1951), pp. 454-455; Mary J. Williams, "Storyland on the Ceiling," *Crippled Child*, Vol. 29 (August, 1951), pp. 8, 28.

multi-storied building without elevator will not permit access to classrooms because the child is in a wheelchair or has many cumbersome braces or because he has a weak heart and cannot negotiate stairways. Such children are called "homebound." Their educational needs are served by itinerant teachers who visit the home two or more times a week in the same way that they serve children in hospitals. Teaching the homebound is usually an integral part of a school system's program for the education of exceptional children.

In recent years there has been considerable experimentation with a telephone method of teaching the homebound. It may be called "school attendance by wire." The method was originally developed in Iowa about 1939 by W. A. Wintersteen, Director of Special Education in the State Department of Public Instruction. By 1952 the method had been used in about 2000 cases in 30 states. It is most effective for children in the fourth grade through high school; it is better for children who have had previous school experience so that they can visualize the classroom scene. Arrangements for its use can be made on a rental basis with the local independent Bell System telephone companies. Rates vary slightly in different parts of the country but usually run between \$13 and \$17 per month. The method is usable for any homebound child living within 10 miles from his school; it is especially helpful in rural areas in which the itinerant teacher finds it difficult to reach the homebound child.

The equipment for "school attendance by wire" consists of three separate units hooked into a two-way circuit over a rented telephone line. The classroom unit is a portable combination speaker and sensitive nondirectional microphone. It "broadcasts" all classroom discussions to the sick child at home and, with true fidelity, transmits the shut-in child's recitation to the classroom. The teacher or a pupil in the classroom may direct a question at the homebound child and, by "crossing over" the switches in the classroom unit and the home unit, the child may respond from his home. The classroom unit is light and can be transported easily by the teacher or a pupil from one room to another.

The second unit of the equipment consists of an amplifier which draws its current from a 110-120 volt AC power line. It may be located in the custodian's room or the school office. It may be turned on when school begins in the morning and turned off at the end of the school day. The amplifier serves to design and filter the circuit to match the electrical characteristics of the telephone line, making possible transmissions over these leased lines without interfering with the regular telephone circuits. The amplifier assists in controlling the transmission at proper level to the child's home. The final unit of equipment is a combination amplifier and speaker-microphone placed at the homebound child's convenience like one might place a small radio. The combination volume control and on-off

switch enables the child to tune in whenever he wishes, control the volume, and "talk back" to his classmates when he desires.³⁰

The method of "attending school by wire" seems to have passed the experimental stage.³¹ The main problem now is to secure more widespread use of it. Wider usage may come as the cost factors are reduced so as to bring it within reach of a larger proportion of families and school systems. Perhaps the day is not far distant when television will be used in the same way.

PROBLEMS AND ISSUES

Much progress has been made since 1900 in the expansion and improvement of special education for exceptional children. Most of this progress has come since 1930 (Table 32). There is much left to be done. Even as late as 1948 only 378,059 out of an estimated 4,000,000 exceptional children were being served by special schools and classes in public schools. Residential schools accommodated another 441,820 students. If the latter figure is added to the number served in public-school special classes, the total is still less than one-fourth of the estimated number in need of special services. If public-school facilities were adequate and well distributed, the number of children in residential schools could probably be reduced considerably, and thereby reducing the cost to society and permitting more children to remain at home with their families. No matter how fine the residential school may be, placement therein should be used only if the child's needs cannot be met in his own community.

Rural areas and the smaller towns and cities contain the largest proportion of children whose needs are unmet. Since exceptional children make up less than 15 per cent of the school population, and since each type of exceptional group requires somewhat different kind of service and equipment, it is difficult to recruit enough pupils of any one type to organize a class. Several states have initiated aggressive state-wide programs specifically designed to reach children outside of the larger cities. Pennsylvania pioneered in this work, which began in 1939.³² For the first time in the history of this field there were appointed, on a state-wide basis, persons whose legal responsibility was that of working solely in rural areas and entirely in the interest of exceptional children. Other states have since tried various kinds of state-wide programs. In Texas the law permits several neighboring school districts to join in a cooperative agreement for the employment of one or

³⁰ Full details about this equipment may be secured from: Special Education Division, Executone Communication and Sound Systems, 415 Lexington Ave., New York 17, N. Y.

³¹ Jessie M. Parker and W. A. Wintersteen, "School Goes To the Child," *Crippled Child* (October, 1949).

³² T. E. Newland, "County Supervisors of Special Education in Pennsylvania," *Journal of Exceptional Children*, Vol. 9 (October, 1942), pp. 23-25.

more special education teachers. In Oregon the plan includes institutes, extension courses, and summer workshops for all teachers to acquaint them with the problems of exceptional children and to enable each classroom teacher to meet better his or her relationships to these pupils. The Oregon plan also included an eight-week intensive summer program at the State School for the Deaf for 150 children from all over Oregon who had speech and hearing problems.³³

To date no thoroughly satisfactory plan has been devised for serving exceptional children in areas outside of the larger cities. Public and private residential schools are designed to serve the most needy cases, but this means that the child must leave home and many parents resist institutional placement. The result is that schools in such areas have most of the exceptional children in regular classes without the assistance of persons trained in special education. Invariably these schools are least equipped to meet this problem. So far the use of itinerant teachers has been the chief source of help in these schools. Although the latter plan has much merit and should be extended, its limitations should also be recognized. An itinerant teacher traveling over large areas usually cannot visit each school or child more than once a week. The chief burden of special help for the child must still rest with the classroom teacher who may or may not have any preparation for it. The itinerant teacher probably has to spend more time in in-service education of classroom teachers than in serving children, even though the in-service function is highly commendatory. Itinerant and classroom teachers together can serve only the less involved cases. Children who need extensive speech therapy, speech reading, instruction in Braille, physical or hydrotherapy, or who are mentally retarded cannot be served adequately by the itinerant teacher arrangement.

Invariably school laws prevent areas outside of the larger cities from entering into cooperative arrangements whereby exceptional children could be served better. In some states a child cannot legally attend school in another district if his grade is offered in his home district, unless the parent pays the full tuition costs. School districts cannot collaborate in using capital outlay funds to build special-education facilities in the centrally located district. Usually the county seat town is the largest town in the county and is centrally located in the county. All other parts of the county are within 50 to 75 miles from the county seat. If all the school districts in a county had legal authority to pool funds and operating costs, needed special-education facilities could be built in the county seat town. All types of exceptional children from all over the county could attend school in the county seat town. Those who lived too far away to commute daily could come in on Sunday night and return home after school on Friday, boarding with a family in town during the school week. Such an arrangement would extend

³³ Will Hayes, "Education and the Exceptional Child," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 35 (November, 1949), pp. 406-413.

special services to a larger proportion of children and enable most of them to live at home; even the boarding cases would be in their own homes each week end. In some states the movement toward consolidation of school districts is solving this problem in a similar fashion.

The general shortage of properly qualified teachers, especially in elementary schools, augments the normal dearth of teachers with specialized preparation for serving the needs of exceptional children. The shortage of specially trained teachers is a major factor in retarding the expansion of special education.³⁴ Principals should assist in recruiting capable teachers who possess the personal qualifications for success in this work. Many universities now provide a Master's degree program in some phase of special education. Interested teachers could take their Master's degrees in special education and thereby open up new vistas of service for themselves.

Smaller school systems in which there are not enough exceptional children to require a full-time teacher could augment the talents of present staff members by planned summer-school attendance. Many school boards provide bonuses or salary increases for summer-school attendance. If summer-session plans were properly worked out with the teachers, it would not be difficult to interest different teachers in at least one summer's work in a special field, especially if that work could be counted toward the degree sought by the teacher. If the school board has no established policy regarding bonuses or salary increases for advanced training, a forward-looking school board could well afford to subsidize one or more of its permanent teachers each summer and thus gradually build up an unusually comprehensive educational program for the children of the district. Even if no special financial encouragement comes from the school board, many teachers are regularly taking summer courses. A little direction on summer study by the superintendent might go a long way in providing broader educational services to the great variety of individual needs found among the children of a typical school population.³⁵

Another phase of the teacher education problem is the orientation of all teachers to the needs of exceptional children. In every school a large proportion of exceptional children spend full time or part time in regular classes. Unless classroom teachers in general are well enough informed about the characteristics, needs, and problems of exceptional children, much harm can be done by inadvertent unwise words or deeds. Some school systems are meeting this problem through extension courses, a lecture series, or short-term institutes for the whole school staff.

³⁴ Hayes, *ibid.* F. E. Lord and Merry M. Wallace, "Recruitment of Special Education Teachers," *Journal of Exceptional Children*, Vol. 15 (March, 1949), pp. 171-175, 192.

³⁵ Henry J. Otto, "Utilizing Teachers' Special Talents in Small Schools," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 23 (January, 1937), pp. 35-42.

The added costs of special services to exceptional children retards the work in many areas, especially if the area contains many small school districts. The cost of educating children, typical or atypical, varies from state to state, but it costs more everywhere to educate the exceptional. Estimates from one state showed that, as compared to the annual per pupil cost in regular classes, it costs 1.5 times as much for mentally retarded, 2.5 times as much for the blind and partially seeing, 3.0 times as much for the deaf, hard-of-hearing, and speech defective, and 3.5 times as much for those suffering from orthopedic difficulties.³⁶ To some these added costs may look prohibitive, but they must be examined in the light of the returns which they bring. It is much cheaper for society to educate handicapped children and to make them self-supporting citizens than it is for society to care for them as custodial cases throughout their lives, to say nothing of the self-respect and contribution to the general welfare of the educated and self-supporting citizen. Nation-wide the past decade has seen a marked increase in the employment of disabled persons. This trend can be expected to continue, thus opening up new avenues for gainful employment of the graduates of special-education programs.

So far special provisions for exceptional children have prevailed largely in elementary schools. In 1948 special schools and classes in public schools enrolled 307,051 elementary and 46,682 secondary pupils; of the latter group, 16,632 were in special classes for the gifted. It is evident that an expansion of all types of provisions for exceptional children is badly needed in secondary schools. This need is particularly evident as the work in special education places increasing emphasis upon preparing handicapped youngsters for gainful employment.

Another issue that has been touched upon at several points in the preceding narrative is the question of segregation of exceptional children into special schools or classes on a full-time basis versus part-time membership in regular classes. The issue applies to all types of exceptional children even though the debates have focused primarily upon the advisability of separated classes for the gifted. Many recent writers in the field of special education have stressed the importance of having every child who is physically able have as nearly full-time membership in a regular class as possible.³⁷ The ultimate objective of special education is to enable chil-

³⁶ National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, *New Perspectives* (Chicago, the Society, 1945), p. 12.

³⁷ Geraldine K. Fergen and Mary E. Williams, "Special Education Vitalizes School Programs," *Journal of Exceptional Children*, Vol. 15 (April, 1949), pp. 203-205; J. Conrad Seegers, "Teaching Bright Children," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 49 (May-June, 1949), pp. 511-515; Elise H. Martens, "Life Adjustment for the Seriously Disabled," *Journal of Exceptional Children*, Vol. 13 (January, 1947), pp. 109-113, 128; Thelma Bishop, "Group Work for Leaders of the Physically Handicapped," *Journal of Exceptional Children*, Vol. 16 (November, 1949), pp. 49-52, 61; Mortimer Schiffer, "Activity Group Therapy for the Exceptional Child," *Journal of Exceptional Children*, Vol. 12 (January, 1946), pp. 97-105; Henry J. Otto and others, "Texas

dren with physical limitations to live normal or near-normal lives, to be self-supporting citizens, and to be typical participants in the social and civic affairs of the community. More than any other group, children with physical limitations need to achieve confident selfhood, acceptance and peer-status among so-called normal children. Children, while growing up, should have the opportunity to live and learn to live in a society of so-called normal people because that is the kind of society in which they must make their way in adulthood. This objective cannot be achieved so easily if handicapped children spend their entire school careers in special schools or classes in which all their classmates are also handicapped persons (Figs. 31, 32, 33).

Giving all exceptional children who are physically able as much daily membership in regular classes as the individual case will permit has many values for those who are not classified as exceptional children. Children without pronounced physical limitations must learn to develop easy unconcern toward the crippled, blind, partially sighted, deaf, hard-of-hearing, speech defective, or other type of exceptional child. They must also develop attitudes of acceptance, respect, and helpfulness without deference and oversolicitousness toward those with limitations. If all children and youth could achieve these desired attitudes and habits regarding those with physical limitations, the latter would have increased job opportunities in later life and a total environment in which a full life could be realized more easily.

The issue regarding part-time placement in regular classes versus full-time assignment in special school or class raises a matter of fundamental educational policy which a school system must resolve before it goes very far in developing its program for exceptional children. School systems that adopt the policy of full-time assignment to a special class tend to build special schools of various types to which children are transported from all parts of the district. Examples are the Charles Boettcher School for crippled children in Denver, Colorado, the Michael Dowling School for crippled children in Minneapolis, Minnesota, and the Racham School in Ypsilanti, Michigan. Some cities have set aside a special school for the deaf and hard-of-hearing and still another school for the blind and partially sighted.

School systems that adopt the policy of part-time membership in regular classes for all exceptional children who are physically able tend to establish various types of special classes in existing elementary or secondary schools or as a special wing of a regular school. Either arrangement gives the exceptional child his basic enrollment in a regular class, with full participation in all class activities to the extent of the child's ability.



FIG. 31: Physically handicapped children and their regular classmates enjoying a story hour in the Casis School library, Austin, Texas.



FIG. 32: At the Casis School, children with speech disorders have membership in regular classes. The speech therapist and the classroom teacher cooperate in meeting the child's need. This picture shows a second-grade reading group which contains two children who are receiving special speech therapy three times a week.

He is excused from his regular class for such periods each day or week as are required for the help he is receiving from special-education teachers. Examples of the latter type of policy are the Ann J. Kellogg Elementary School in Battle Creek, Michigan, the Upjohn School in Kalamazoo, Michigan, and the Casis Elementary School in Austin, Texas. In the Ann J. Kellogg School the specialized facilities for special education are distributed throughout the building; the school accommodates about 900 pupils, 300 of whom represent all types of exceptional children, many of whom are transported there each day from all parts of the county. The Upjohn School and the Casis School each has a wing especially built and



FIG. 33: At the Casis School children in the orthopedic class eat in the school lunchroom. They pass through the cafeteria line and make their own food selections. Assistance, as needed, is given by teacher, nurse-assistant, or cafeteria staff.

equipped for special education. In all three schools exceptional children who hold membership in regular classes have ready access to the specialized facilities and services on a per-period schedule. The teachers in each of the different phases of special education can serve more pupils in this way than they would be able to if all children had full-time assignment in special education.

THE CLASSROOM TEACHER'S PART

The regular classroom teacher is truly the first line of defense as well as offense in any program for meeting the needs of exceptional children.

In the majority of school districts in this country specialists are not at hand to survey the school population once or twice a year to identify the cases that need special care. Usually the smaller communities do not have specialists in other professions whose aid might be enlisted; the local physician is a general practitioner without the clinical and X-ray laboratory or the modernly equipped hospital found in large cities. The local dentist is also a general practitioner without training or interest in the specialties. Parents are likewise untutored in the problems of exceptional children. In such communities, if anything is to be done, the classroom teacher and the administrator must take the initiative and the responsibility. Even in larger centers where specialists and special facilities are available, it is still the classroom teacher who contacts all the children of all the people every day and who is in a position to note deviation from normal growth and development.

The role of the classroom teacher may be thought of from several angles. In the first place, the classroom teacher should have a broad and clear concept of the nature of the problem of individual differences in children and the channels through which the school may serve the varying needs of children. Within the broad framework of individual differences lie the needs of exceptional children. Every teacher needs to know the types of exceptional children and the nature of the resources for their care and education.

As a phase of the continuing program of child study and individual cumulative records, the teacher gathers important information which may reveal factors associated with the beginnings of problems likely to become serious if not attended to with dispatch. The classroom teacher thus serves as a continuous screening agent regarding all kinds of children's problems. The screening tests for vision and hearing, the periodic weighing and measuring of children, anecdotal records, and mental and achievement tests constitute the more objective tools which the teacher uses regularly, the findings of which serve to identify the children in need of specialized services. Thus the teacher must be capable of recognizing the deviations from normal and the degree of deviation which merits special examination by experts. The teacher is really a first-line officer in the selection of cases for more careful study and possible designation for special education. The fact that several studies have shown that teachers of today are not too capable in identifying the children in need of special care does not vitiate the principle that the teacher is the first-line officer in the selection of cases; it merely means that teachers need further training so that they may perform this function more satisfactorily.

A third responsibility which classroom teachers can hardly escape pertains to the temporary care and teaching of exceptional pupils while they are awaiting transfer to a special class or school. This responsibility of teachers is really an extensive one, since, as was shown earlier, present

special provisions for exceptional pupils reach only about 10 per cent of the total number. To discharge this responsibility with even a reasonable degree of satisfaction, teachers should have general knowledge of the characteristics of the various types of deviates and something of the methods and materials used in their education. This knowledge should be at least broad enough so that wrong methods are avoided. As an aid to teachers on these latter problems, every school should maintain in its professional library a collection of books on the education of various types of exceptional children.

Identification of exceptional children is important, but it is equally necessary to bring those children into contact with persons and agencies through which they may receive aid. To know when and where to seek further aid for the cases that cannot be cared for in the local school becomes a fourth responsibility of the classroom teacher. A closely allied fifth duty is the care and education of the large majority of exceptional children whose special needs are of a minor character and who ordinarily are not eligible for special-class assignment. Within each of the types of atypical children are many individuals with minor defects which are in urgent need of special consideration. If their needs are to be met at all, it must be done through the regular program of instruction.

A sixth responsibility of the classroom teacher lies in the field of prevention. Much has been said about school-created problems resulting from inadequate light in classrooms, from improper management of discipline, from lack of proper contact with the homes, and from such other practices as pertain to the inadequate adjustment of the school to the child. Equally much has been said and written about prevention, prevention in the sense of eliminating all factors which are likely to precipitate problems for children, and prevention in the sense of dealing with difficulties in the early and usually less difficult stages of their incipency. The classroom teacher plays the major role in both phases of a program of prevention, which ought to be a major concern in all schools.

THE BUILDING PRINCIPAL AND SPECIAL CLASSES

It is through the local school units that the educational system of a city makes its contact with children. Consequently the principal and the teaching corps of each building have specific relationships and responsibilities regarding the city's program for exceptional children. The immediate responsibilities of the staff within a local unit will depend in part upon the manner in which the district makes provision for exceptional children. Many of the smaller cities have not established special classes or schools. In such cases the extreme deviates are committed to state institutions, whereas the less atypical pupils, those who would ordinarily be assigned to special classes, are cared for in the regular classes.

If all children, including the nontypical, are assigned to the regular classes, the principal is confronted with additional problems resulting from the greater heterogeneity of the pupil population. Special techniques are frequently necessary to obtain a comprehensive survey of the physical, educational, and mental status of the enrolled pupils. Since psychologists, physicians, and other specialists are frequently not available, the principal must be competent to take charge of the work or to direct his teachers in the work. The techniques employed may not be as refined as those used by the specialists, yet they must be adequate so that the principal may be assured that no misratings, which might result in gross errors of procedures, have been made. In the light of the results of surveys, the curricula, classification and promotion practices, and classroom methods and management must be scrutinized with somewhat greater care than would otherwise be necessary. The administrative policies and the entire organization of the school must be shaped in a way which will permit classroom teachers to make adequate provisions for the peculiar needs of those pupils who are found to be atypical. The supervisory activities of the principal will need to be adjusted to the conditions at hand. Teachers may need assistance and in-service training to enable them better to identify pupils in need of special treatment. Teachers may also need direction and assistance in the selection and application of appropriate remedial devices, or in the adjustment or enrichment of the curriculum, or in the selection of instructional materials. Frequently a principal can render a teacher great service by directing her to helpful professional literature dealing with the peculiar problems confronting her at the time.

In communities in which the educational program of the city includes a variety of special classes, the problems of the principal regarding deviate children are usually met in one of two ways: namely, by establishing special rooms in his own school, or by securing pupil transfers to special rooms in other schools or to special schools provided by the school system. Many principals will have within their buildings one or more types of special classes under their supervision. The principals of buildings housing special classes will have the responsibility not only for the identification and transfer of pupils from regular to special classes but also for the general administration and supervision of the work in the special classes.

Although much of the detailed work of diagnosis, remedial treatment, and classroom procedure will be directed by specialists in the respective fields, many additional responsibilities will fall upon the principal. The principal must understand the needs of deviate children in order to make proper administrative provisions for them. The program and work of the regular school must be coordinated with that for the special groups. Usually child-accounting records, such as attendance, report cards, transfer and admittance forms, employment records, and placements for those who

have terminated their school life, are handled through the principal's office. Unless the building has been specifically designed for the special groups it is to house, adjustments of plant may be needed and special equipment installed. If pupils are assigned to the special groups from other buildings in the city, or if the special groups consist of crippled children, the general supervision of pupil transportation may be delegated to the principal. There may also be general supervisory relations between the principal and the special-class teachers, calling for specialized supervisory techniques, stimulation and guidance in professional growth, and general cooperation and support of the work of special teachers. In fact, the principal who finds within his building one or more special groups will have endless opportunity to render professional service of a high type in many phases of the work of public education.

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13

The School in Its Community at Mid-Century

THE MIDDLE OF THE twentieth century will probably become known as the period of "the great re-appraisal and re-direction" of public education in the United States. For half a century or more various movements have been under way in education and in the culture. Each movement had been needling one or more conventional ideas or practices. The combination of the various movements was causing such an impact, or disrupting influence, that it was inevitable that the smoldering issues should rise to the surface and cause momentous disturbances in the minds of individuals and groups. In a democracy such disturbances result in widespread debate, articles in newspapers and magazines, and frequently major upheavals in local school programs. All of this may be disturbing to professional educators as well as to citizens, but it is proof that people care about their children's education. When people really care, and will debate the issues extensively, the democratic way may be depended upon to reach wise decisions in the end.

What have been the movements, or disturbing elements, within education itself during the past half century? Writers differ on the items they list, but since our purpose here is not to be exhaustive but merely to identify enough of the issues to clarify the point, Van Til's list of five significant movements in education will be adequate.¹ He described the impact of scientific findings in psychology, the debate on modern versus traditional education, the arguments about the child-centered school, the debate on the direction of education, and the issue pertaining to the role of the school in society. Faculty psychology and the doctrine of mental discipline had been shown to be false and were being displaced with a learning theory which emphasized the role of experience in learning, the importance of the learner's purposes, the use of life-like problems, the role of the learner's attitudes and emotions, and the fact that the whole child must be considered in the learning process. The new theories of learning challenged the educative value of conventional subjects whose

¹ William Van Til, "The Task of the Educator," *Forces Affecting American Education*, 1953 Yearbook, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (Washington, the Association, 1953), Ch. 1.

status had rested on their usefulness in "training" or "disciplining" the mind. Modern education stressed personal and social life problems of learners, whereas traditional education called for the mastery of logically organized disciplines. Traditional education hung to the merit of the iron hand while modern education sought to develop the self-disciplined person essential for life in a democracy. Modern education stressed the importance of children's needs, interests, problems, and purposes and campaigned for a more child-centered school. Traditional education sought security in the heritage of the past and well-ordered schools in which behavior was directed and controlled by the teacher, and students studied the time-honored subjects. The argument about the school's objectives revolved around the issue as to whether schools should mirror the desires of the dominant group or groups in the local community or whether the school should attempt to educate for a genuinely democratic way of life. Should the school strive to build character and attitudes consistent with the tenets of democracy or should the school confine itself to the heritage of the past and let parents and community forces instill attitudes and ideals regardless of what they might be? Closely associated with the last question is the issue as to whether the school should educate for the status quo, or should the school be an active agent in societal improvement? Should live controversial issues be studied and debated in the school or should the school maintain a hushed position on all issues not yet resolved in our society? Modern education holds that the school should help its students to become intelligent about current issues and problems, but there are many people who fear that widespread knowledge may threaten existing special privilege. These are fundamental educational issues and it is little wonder that the mid-twentieth century has harbored a furor about them. That the outcome of the debate will be constructive and wise is already forecast by the improvements that are taking place, spotted and periodically retrogressive as the changes may be.

If the reorientation of education itself were taking place alone, unaccompanied by changes in the culture, the debates on controversial issues in education might have been less heated and the transition from former to the newer school programs might be smoother and faster. But such was not the case. Our culture was also undergoing fundamental changes during the very period in which changes in education were pressing forward, and school programs cannot remain static in a changing culture. If educational leaders do not effect changes in school programs, the people do through their state legislatures. When fundamental changes in education and fundamental changes in society take place simultaneously one can expect bitter controversy, especially when both types of changes are occurring in a period of international tension and insecurity. Some of the important changes taking place in our culture were described in previous chapters;

others have been set forth by sociologists.² Johnson pointed out that the unresolved problems in American life converge upon the schools, and that in the unresolved problems there is a threat to education because the nation is entering upon a phase of social evolution different from, and possibly greater than, any it has ever known; whatever equilibrium there was in the earlier society has been destroyed beyond repair.³ The old economic order has been not merely disturbed, but virtually displaced by the new industrial economy which tends to offer only a means of living without essential social stability or community of interests. The relationship between the rights and welfare of the individual and the welfare of society is undergoing reorientation. In eighteenth-century theory, property was as sacred as life and liberty; life was a struggle for the survival of the fittest without the benefit of much social legislation to protect the individual against the ravages of fluctuating prices and wages, unfair competition, and circumstances beyond the control of the individual. In mid-twentieth century, there is accumulating evidence that cooperation, not conflict, is the natural law of life. If liberty, equality, and fraternity are to have meaning, the relationship between individual welfare and social welfare must be accorded a new dimension in which liberty is coupled with individual and social responsibility. In the new orientation there is much debate about the positive rights of individuals, such as the right to a living wage, to reasonable leisure, and to maintenance during childhood and old age.

The economic aspects of cultural change bring other changes in their wake. New horizons and new patterns of behavior and employment are being sought in the relationships between minority and majority groups. The new leadership among the American Indians is seeking the re-establishment of the Indian population outside the reservations, with full citizenship rights. The Chinese, Japanese, Spanish-speaking, Negro, and other minority citizen groups are pressing for reforms that will accord them full status as citizens in our country. The American family has been in the process of profound changes during recent decades. Is the family as a basic social unit disintegrating, or is it merely adjusting itself to the demands of a new social order? As yet there are no widely agreed-upon characteristics of the family of the future as a social unit, or the functions the family of

² Lloyd Allen Cook, *A Sociological Approach to Education* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1950); Lyman Bryson and others, *Conflicts of Power in Modern Culture* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1947); Jessie Bernard, *American Community Behavior* (New York, The Dryden Press, 1949); James H. S. Bossard, *The Sociology of Childhood* (New York, Harper and Brothers, 1948); Francis J. Brown, *Educational Sociology* (New York, Prentice-Hall, 1947).

³ Charles S. Johnson, "The Culture Affecting Education," 1953 Yearbook, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (Washington, the Association, 1953), Ch. 2.

the future will have as compared to the family of a century ago. One point seems reasonably certain; the family of tomorrow and the home of tomorrow will be different. The philosophical conviction that all men are created equal before God and before the law brings about unrealistic confusion and paradox regarding class stratification. Nearly 90 per cent of our people consider themselves as "middle class." But what does "middle class" mean? In terms of economic, social, or cultural measurement, it is impossible to have any such volume of middle-class society in our present social economy. What new aspirations or changing beliefs are reflected in the fact that 90 per cent classify themselves as "middle class"?

The trends in the culture, together with the trends in education, create conflicting issues and forces which impinge upon the schools. Democracy stakes its future upon the diffusion of knowledge. Know ye the truth, and the truth shall make you free. Among the inalienable rights is the right of the individual to as much education as he desires and is able to absorb. Yet in the 1950's there are prominent figures and groups who would limit college attendance, or even secondary-school attendance, to those of superior ability and application. Differentiated education to meet the needs of all has not yet achieved general endorsement. Thorough diffusion of knowledge implies free inquiry, academic freedom. But we still have vociferous individuals and groups who insist that certain social, economic, or political topics shall not be discussed in schools or even in colleges. When free inquiry is curtailed, only the beliefs of the controlling groups may be taught in the schools. When this happens, education for the future is directed toward the kind of society envisioned by the controlling group, even though the latter may be a minority which may hold views which are at variance with the facts, and at variance with the evolving democratic concepts of the majority.

The tradition of social service has been fairly strong in our society. "Thou shall love thy neighbor as thyself," and "Thou shalt be thy brother's keeper" are not empty verbalisms with our people. But where is the dividing line between creating sturdy individualism and a spineless person who must be protected and supported by society? Do federal social security, federal aid to health services and hospitals, to school-lunch programs, to soil and water conservation, and to vocational education spell the earmarks of a "welfare state"? Does federal aid to education, to rural electrification, to highway construction, to the construction of power dams and flood control, and to the maintenance of federal parks for the recreation of all fall in the same classification when analyzed in terms of social policy?

What value does society place upon education when business and industry consistently provide higher remuneration than the teaching profession? Can education continue to discharge its increasingly complex

and broader role if the recruitment of teachers must be from among those who love teaching or have a devotion to social service sufficiently deep to forego a comfortable income? How far should schools go in teaching the brotherhood of man? Is the idea all right as a theoretical concept as long as we avoid putting it into practice? Do we object to having the attendance zone changed so that the child from across the tracks will not become our children's classmate? Do we object to having Jewish, Catholic, Baptist, Lutheran, Chinese, Italian, or Negro children become *our children's* classmate? Is teaching about the United Nations prohibited in our schools? What is the relationship between a world at peace and education for international understanding? Can world peace and understanding be achieved without realistic teaching about the peoples of *all* other lands?

Are we genuinely committed to education for the perpetuation and improvement of democracy? If so, what *must* happen in school curricula and school practices? Shall the teacher maintain an iron rule and compel regimented conformity or must the teacher utilize procedures which build for self-control and self-directed conduct? Shall we cram children's heads full of information and stop there, or shall information be used in a way which teaches critical thinking and problem-solving ability? What kinds of problems make the most valuable learning situations, those of earlier centuries or those confronting people today? If you choose today's problems, can the selection of problems be representative or must they be restricted to those tolerated by certain groups in the community? Russell identified three sham idols which harass American education and which must be eliminated before a genuine education can take place.⁴ The first sham is the belief that a general principle, well taught, will be applied by the learner in many different practical situations; knowledge is automatically followed by conduct. Teach the Constitution and you get a good citizen. The second sham is the conviction that disagreeable, difficult, and preferably useless work in a highly organized subject, like Greek, Latin, or mathematics, will train the mind, sharpen judgment, and have useful results far beyond the mastery of the subject itself. A related conviction, equally false, is the idea that discipline, politeness, and good behavior are general qualities, which, once learned, will be applied in all life situations. The third sham is the belief that if you want to train a leader you must first discipline him, make him follow, make him do as he is told; regimentation and strict discipline, not creativity and the practice of leadership roles, make leaders. Regardless of how absurd these shams may sound to the professional educator, they are firm beliefs in the minds of many and as such harass the road toward educational improvement.

⁴ William F. Russell, "Great Issues in American Education," *Leadership for American Education* (Washington, American Association of School Administrators, 1952). pp. 203-219.

THE FORCES THAT BUILD AND UNIFY

The preceding paragraphs have given a brief sketch of some of the components which make up the mid-twentieth-century matrix of the environment in which both education and society are reaching for new orientation and are seeking new foundations upon which pillars of security can be erected, pillars that are comparable in security and stability to older ones which are passing from the scene. In the groping for new horizons and new foundations, education and society are inescapably intertwined, each seeking continuous better adjustment to the other. The fact that the school is a creature of society, and is its servant as well as its agent for regeneration, makes the reorientation of education more difficult than it otherwise might be. It is unfortunate that the conflicting viewpoints about education and about society must be debated and resolved in an atmosphere of world tension, uncertainty, and impending war.⁵

To the casual observer this mid-twentieth-century scene may appear terribly confused. It is confused, but it is by no means hopeless. Much progress is being made. A review of the chapters of this book will reveal a long list of items representing improvements in elementary education. Professional books and journals will reveal similar progress in other areas of education. It is true that progress is not along a straight line; there are many detours and reversals, but the general trend is definitely forward. A new education in a new culture is emerging. The exact earmarks of the new education are not yet too clearly discernible. The foreign visitor in our midst concludes that the only common denominator in our total scheme of education is its diversity. Perhaps we shall never have a system of education which settles down to clearly discernible and unchanging characteristics. Perhaps we should hope that education will never become static, but remain continuously in a flux, adjusting itself to the changing culture. If the latter condition should prevail, educators must accept the dictum that school *and* society will always be undergoing change, that the "great debates" about education will continue, and that school and community relationships ought to be planned and conducted on the assumption that the mid-twentieth-century fluid, uncertain, controversial matrix of the school in society will be a continuing condition.

If the preceding hypotheses are accepted as a frame of reference, it becomes important that educators know and utilize the forces and agencies which are continuing factors in facilitating the readjustments between the school and society. Space permits only a brief identification of the forces that build and unify. Frequently the role of newspapers and magazines is overlooked. During the past decade lay magazines and newspapers have contained more articles about education than appeared in any preceding

⁵ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Growing Up In An Anxious Age*, 1952 Yearbook (Washington, the Association, 1952).

decade. There are more magazines and newspapers than ever before, and they are more widely read. It is true that many of the articles have been unfriendly toward public education; some have, with malicious intent, distorted or misrepresented the facts; and some have challenged the foundations upon which public education rests. All, however, have brought the issues before the people, have helped to identify and clarify the areas of controversy, and have stimulated much informal and formal discussion. Bringing the issues out into the open and precipitating widespread discussion is a prerequisite to the development of consensus and majority agreement on action to be taken. Let us not overlook the constructive force growing out of the fact that today more people are discussing a wider array of topics in education than ever before.

To the contribution of newspapers and magazines must be added the role of the radio and television. Several of the national networks have carried regularly for a period of years spot news or commentaries about the needs of public schools. Occasionally special programs about the schools have been placed on the air waves. Throughout the intensified discussions at mid-century the National Congress of Parents and Teachers has published helpful bulletins, cooperated with various national and state groups, and assisted the 37,000 local P.T.A. units in building more effective local programs.⁶ In May, 1949, the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools was formed. Its members are United States citizens not professionally identified with education, religion, or politics.⁷ Its purpose has been to build a widespread interest in the public schools in order to improve them. The activities of the Commission have included conferences, the preparation of newspaper and magazine articles, radio programs, publication of pamphlets, and helping laymen in local communities to find answers to local school problems.⁸

The National School Boards Association was originally created in 1940 as the National Council of State School Boards Associations. In 1948 the name was shortened to National School Boards Association and in 1949 national headquarters were established in Chicago at 450 East Ohio Street; a full-time executive secretary was named in 1949. By 1952, 44 states had organized state school board associations. The National School Boards Association is a federation of state school board associations. The purposes of the national and the state associations are the same and have been stated as follows: (1) to work for the general advancement of education for the youth of the United States and its possessions, (2) to study the educational program of the different states and to disseminate this infor-

⁶ Some publications are: *Everybody's Schools* and *Schools and Health in Rural Areas* (Chicago, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1951 and 1951).

⁷ *How Can We Help Get Better Schools?* National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 2 West 45th Street, New York 19, N. Y.

⁸ Henry Toy, Jr., "The Program of the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools," *School Executive*, Vol. 69, No. 6 (February, 1950), pp. 11-14, 82.

mation, (3) to work for the most efficient and effective organization of the public schools, (4) to work for the adequate financial support of the public schools, (5) to study educational legislation proposed in Congress to the end that the various state school board associations may be informed of such legislation, and (6) to accomplish such other purposes as may be approved by the membership of this organization acting in an annual or called meeting, or by the Executive Committee. The national, as well as the state associations, engages in a variety of activities designed to promote the cause of public education. These activities include the publication of articles in journals, the preparation of handbooks, and the sponsorship of conferences and workshops.

The Congress of Industrial Organizations (commonly known as the C.I.O.) and the American Federation of Labor have been staunch supporters of public education. These organizations have published many articles about education in their journals and have participated in campaigns at the state and national levels for school support and school improvement. The National Association of Manufacturers has carried on many worthwhile projects and publications designed to support public education.⁹ The United States Chamber of Commerce has issued publications and in other ways endeavored to promote a better understanding of the problems, objectives, and interdependence of schools and business. One of its major projects has been the sponsorship of Business-Industry-Education Days.¹⁰

The American Association of University Women, the Anti-Defamation League, the American Jewish Committee, and, at times, the American Legion have been aggressive participants in promoting the cause of public education. In order to help its members find a basis for study and action, the A.A.U.W. provided its members with a bibliography and a kit of ten items which highlighted the nature of current controversies.¹¹ In addition to publishing some materials of its own,¹² the Anti-Defamation League also distributed reprints. Activities of a similar nature have been carried on by the American Jewish Committee and the American Legion, the latter having been very constructive in many places in dealing with minority-group efforts to censor textbooks.

The N.E.A. has played a prominent role during this mid-century period in identifying and clarifying the issues, and in building broad understanding of and support for public education. In 1941 the N.E.A. created a

⁹ *Industry's View on Financial Support of Education* (New York, National Association of Manufacturers, 1951).

¹⁰ Some publications are: *Education—An Investment in People*, *Education Steps Up Living Standards*, *The Growing Challenge*, and *Schools Must Grow for Tomorrow* (Washington, The Chamber of Commerce of the United States of America).

¹¹ Kit of Materials available from: Washington, American Association of University Women.

¹² Ernest O. Melby, *American Education Under Fire* (New York, Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1951). Reprints and other publications available from the League.

special commission to deal with these problems, called the National Commission for the Defense of Democracy Through Education. The purposes of the Commission are: (1) to give the public more understanding of the importance of education for all of our people, (2) to defend the cause of education against unjust attacks and to investigate charges involving teachers, schools, educational methods, and procedures, and (3) to work for the educational conditions essential for the perpetuation of our democracy. As a special channel for extending school and community understanding and relationships, leaders in the school public relations field organized in 1935 the National School Public Relations Association; in 1950 this association became a department of the N.E.A.

Throughout this period of educational and cultural reorientation, the most effective work in helping educators and laymen to see themselves and their schools in new light has probably been done within the local communities themselves. Classroom teachers, school administrators, school boards, and lay citizens, individually or as citizens committees, have expanded their efforts and activities to enable their associates to become aware of the problems, to clarify the issues, and to reach consensus regarding action programs. Three departments of the N.E.A., the Department of Elementary School Principals, the American Association of School Administrators, and the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, issued yearbooks dealing with school and community.¹³ The large number of organizations, and the numerous activities engaged in by thousands of people, give much promise for the continued support for, and improvement of, public education as it discovers its new roles in the changing society beyond the mid-century period.

COMPLICATING FACTORS AND FORCES

In a democratic society it is only natural that a period characterized by anxiety and rapid social and educational change should be fraught with disagreements and, at times, bitter strife. Parents' greater concern for their children's education led many parents to examine the schools more critically than ever before. Not being familiar with modern curricula and methods, they looked askance at some school practices. Some felt that the schools did not teach the three R's properly; some said the curriculum contained too many fads and frills. Those who tended to be money-minded said the schools cost too much. Others complained about inadequate teaching of moral and spiritual values, inadequate emphasis upon United

¹³ Department of Elementary School Principals, *The Public and the Elementary School*, Twenty-eighth Yearbook (Washington, N.E.A., 1949); American Association of School Administrators, *Public Relations for America's Schools*, Twenty-eighth Yearbook (Washington, N.E.A., 1950); Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *Forces Affecting American Education*, 1953 Yearbook (Washington, N.E.A., 1953).

States history, laxity in discipline, or that the school was usurping too many of the functions of the home. Invariably the complaints were unsubstantiated with facts, or were contradictory to the facts, but people made the complaints in sincerity; they simply did not have the facts. Modern education urges support for democracy as a way of life, but some individuals do not conceive of our society as a democracy. They claim that the Constitution establishes a republic based upon *representative* government in which the elected representatives do the job as a board of directors of a corporation might operate.

While sincere and well-meaning citizens were discussing these and other issues, certain groups unfriendly to public education took advantage of the situation. Their objective was to weaken or destroy public education. Some challenged the legal basis for public education and urged a return to nonpublic schools. Others charged that "progressive education" was being used and is, per se, evil, that the schools were responsible for juvenile delinquency, or that the public schools were infiltrated with socialists, pinks, or communists who were sowing the seeds of socialism, the welfare state, or communism. Although no evidence was produced to support these charges, except by misrepresentation or distortion of facts, the very fact that these charges were thrown around cast certain suspicions upon the schools and caused concern among school faculties.¹⁴ The Defense Commission of the N.E.A. spent a good deal of its time in investigating unethical practices and in helping local school systems to identify the issues and to develop solutions to local disrupting movements. Worth McClure, executive secretary of the American Association of School Administrators, early in 1952, wrote as follows:¹⁵

The year 1951 has witnessed a continuance of attacks on public education. While the history of American education records that such attacks have always featured times of tension, there is to be noted in the present situation one significant difference from those similar situations in previous stages of our history. This difference consists in what seems to be the national character of some of the current attacks. That is to say that the "party line" of attackers is very similar regardless of the region in which the attacks occur. Time will reveal whether or not this similarity is due to the existence, as some believe, of a nationwide plot to undermine public education.

However, two characteristics of American life today could understandably contribute. One of these is the great improvement of communication so that radio broadcasters can now utilize national hookups to accuse the schools of

¹⁴ For details about unjust criticisms of the public schools, see: Robert A. Skaife, "They Sow Distrust," "They Oppose Progress," and "They Want 'Tailored' Schools," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 47, Nos. 1, 2, and 5 (January, February, and May, 1951); Robert A. Skaife, "Groups Affecting Education," *Forces Affecting American Education*, op. cit., Ch. 3; Melby, *American Education Under Fire*, op. cit.

¹⁵ Worth McClure, "Annual Report of the Executive Secretary," *Leadership for American Education* (Washington, American Association of School Administrators, 1952), pp. 271-273.

failure to teach the Three R's or of attempts to foist socialism upon the nation with assurance of being heard from coast to coast in thousands of local communities. Thus the "party line" is made national in scope. Another characteristic is the existence of a coterie of for-hire propagandists, many of whom learned their trade during the depression. . . . During World War II some of these individuals were listed as un-American or otherwise forced to go underground, but with the cessation of active combat they reappeared. Seeking new prejudices upon which to fatten themselves, they sensed the lucrative possibilities in appeals to prejudice about public education. Some of these operators have clothed themselves in academic degrees of devious origin as well as in high-sounding organizational names, intended to give them status as educators. Their operations have been upon a national scale, facilitated possibly by the use of clipping services through which they have been enabled to locate quickly communities where tensions exist.

While the malicious and mercenary have been named first in this report, they are by no means to be regarded as the most important factors in the situation. It must be recognized that, while public education has been so thoroughly accepted by this nation that it is sometimes called a national religion by foreign observers, there are still thoughtful individuals who honestly doubt the propriety of being required to pay taxes to educate the children of other people. In addition, there are those who reason that because the public schools are non-sectarian they must per se be atheistic and anti-religious. In addition to these two groups, there are large numbers of the uninformed. In times of tension such people are ever ready to be misled by sensational charges. It is the existence of this large group which made Hitler's device of the "big lie" so effective.

One has only to go back to the days of Horace Mann, however, and to read some of his eloquent arguments to sense that there was even in his day a strong body of public opinion which rallied to the support of public schools. It is also true that in every crisis since then, as the record shows, the sound and fury of charges and countercharges over the public-education-versus-private-education issue have never failed to result in more complete understanding and support of public education than before the furors started.

In the present situation there are a number of complicating factors. There is the greatly accelerated birth rate which, according to the U. S. Office of Education will mean 8,000,000 additional children in American schools by 1960, calling for more teachers and more school buildings every year. There is the increasing inflation which has affected all phases of national life so that sharp increases in taxation would have been required even to maintain school service at prewar levels. The need to serve more children with dollars that buy half as much inevitably has brought about clashes in community after community. It has made many upright but uninformed citizens wonder whether the increased expenditures for schools can be justified. It has made others lend a ready ear to charges of inefficiency and mismanagement.

THE CHALLENGE FOR THE SECOND HALF-CENTURY

The challenge during the second half of the twentieth century lies primarily in three areas, all of which are contemporary and must be dealt with concurrently; they cannot be listed in order of priority as to importance or time sequence. One area deals with the clarification of funda-

mental educational issues and the reorientation or redirection of education growing out of the way in which the issues are resolved. The second area deals with the extent to which the issues are made clear and the methods used in enabling the people to discuss and reach decisions regarding the issues. This area might also be called the scope and methods of educating the public about the issues and enlisting their participation in policy formation. The third area is concerned with securing adequate financial support for buildings, teachers' salaries, and other operating costs so that public schools may be maintained at their best while the fundamental issues are being resolved.

Some of the fundamental issues relating to the reorientation and redirection of public education were discussed earlier in this chapter. Caswell pinpointed three issues as being especially crucial.¹⁶ One of them focuses upon the criticism that public schools do not enforce desirable standards of achievement. The basic question is whether we shall have fixed, general standards grade by grade to which all pupils must conform, or whether we shall have standards that are set for each pupil in relation to his capacities. The former leads down the road to a selective educational system; the latter fosters the development of a program based upon the principle of equality of opportunity. Do we adapt instruction and school organization to individual differences or do we hold all to a single common standard?

Caswell's second issue identifies the philosophy and psychology underlying modern versus older methods and curricula. This point was elaborated somewhat earlier in this chapter. Caswell's third point involves the relation between education and religion. This issue came to a focus when the separation of church and state was written into the Constitution as the First Amendment. The issue was discussed widely during the 1830's, especially after 1837 when Horace Mann became the first secretary of the Massachusetts state board of education. Even at that time the public schools were called "Godless" and were blamed for the increase in intemperance, crime, and juvenile depravity. Now, somewhat over one hundred years later, the same issue is highlighted in the press and in legislative halls in spite of the fact that the public schools have been a tremendous power for good and have always given moral values and character development important places among the objectives of instruction.

If public education is to continue to be the tremendous force which it has been in building national unity, in underpinning cultural, social, and economic progress, and in fostering the democratic way of life, the issues which now tend to disunify the people must be discussed widely, thoroughly, and clearly. The people must be educated to make wise de-

¹⁶ Hollis L. Caswell, "The Great Reappraisal of Public Education," *Journal of the National Educational Association*, Vol. 42 (February, 1953), pp. 99-103.

cisions. Educators in every sphere of education should rise to the challenge to make their knowledge of education available so that the issues may be discussed fully and without passion. Now is the time when thorough knowledge, based on sound scholarship, must be made available in the form in which the issues may be understood clearly. Methods of educating the public must be developed and used widely. In other words, the content and methods of lay education *about education* comprise the second major challenge.

The third task is that of maintaining public-school programs at a high level of quality and service while the great reappraisal of public education is taking place. Clearly, this is no small undertaking in the face of increasing enrollments, high living costs, and a depreciated currency. Each individual school unit can take its place and make its contribution toward meeting the challenge of the second half-century. The remainder of this chapter deals primarily with the place and the activities of the individual school.

SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY RELATIONS

There are five basic concepts or areas of performance which must be understood clearly if one desires a wholesome and appropriate relationship between the school and the community which it serves. These five elements are the meaning of *community*, the functions of the school in a democracy, the interrelationship between the school and its supporting community, the importance of continuous and effective interaction between the school and the community, and the methods whereby school and community interaction may be maintained. Each of these will be treated briefly.

The word *community* has come to mean many things to many persons. Definitive usage is imperative if specific, constructive action in the realities of a specific situation is to transpire. The functions of the public schools in American democracy were discussed at some length in Chapter 2, with certain phases elaborated upon in Chapter 3. The reader is requested to refer to these chapters for a review of the functions of the school in a democracy. Above all, it must be remembered that the fundamental purpose of any plan of education, irrespective of the type of political organization or the status of cultural evolution, is social reproduction.

The interrelationship between the school and its supporting community is not always easy to ascertain, especially when the school has visions of its functions far advanced above the understanding of the members of the community, or when the community has practically forgotten the school and no longer recognizes the school as one of its important institutions. Generally speaking, the interrelationship between school and community may be viewed from several angles, all of which are usually

present in varying degrees in every situation. In the first place, a child's education accrues through his participation in or interaction with the elements of his environment, physical and human. The kind of individual that the child is becoming is determined by his biological potentialities and the influence which the elements of his environment are bringing upon him. Learning results from "doing" and "undergoing." The agencies, forces and activities of community life through which the education of children is shaped may be grouped roughly into the following categories: family life, parental occupations, play life and gangs, school life, work experience of children, travel, motion pictures, radio, reading, interracial and intercultural relations, and religious activities.

Note that in the above analysis the school is only one of the many educative influences in child life. This fact, if fully appreciated, clarifies several other aspects of the interrelation between the school and the community. The education of children is a cooperative enterprise in which the school plays a selective role, but this role must be played *in cooperation with other agencies, especially the home*; otherwise the educative influence of the several agencies will be at variance and may counteract one another. In this cooperative interrelationship it must be recognized that society expects the school to help children to understand their own culture and to acquire the competencies needed to contribute to the maintenance of, as well as the improvement of, that culture; *but* society controls the school; the schools cannot rise above the conception of their function by the social group. Consequently, in order that society may permit the schools to discharge the functions which society itself has assigned to the schools, a unique type of educational leadership is required of those who seek certification as teachers, supervisors, and school administrators. It is almost like saying that in a democracy educational leadership must protect society against itself. Technically that is perhaps true, but in reality the task is much simpler, at least in most communities.

The cooperative nature of the child's acculturation makes it imperative that the school's relationship to its community be such that the school may be permitted continuously to discharge its functions. The fourth aspect of school and community relations which must be visualized clearly is the importance of continuous and effective interaction between the school and the community. The public is reasonable, has much good sense, and can comprehend basic issues when presented in understandable language. When the public has a clear understanding and appreciation of what it wants from the school and what the school is doing, there usually is no problem about the school maintaining its real functions. There are many methods whereby the continuous integration of school and community may be maintained. Acquaintanceship with these methods and their appropriate use constitutes the fifth basic phase of school and community relations.

WHAT IS A COMMUNITY?

The school principal or teacher who desires his school to have a genuine and wholesome relationship to its community must know what the school's community is. But the term *community* means many things to many people. From a technical, sociological viewpoint, the Cooks say that a community is a configuration of land, people, and culture, a structured pattern of human relations within a geographic area. Technically, such a community is a population aggregate, inhabiting a delimitable, contiguous area, sharing a historical heritage, possessing a set of basic service institutions, participating in a common mode of life, conscious of its unity, and able to act in a corporate way.¹⁷ But is this the nature of community as experienced by individual schools? If the community is a small town or village which has all the above characteristics, and there is only one school in the community, then *the* community and the *school's* community are one and the same. But suppose the school is one of several one- or two-teacher schools in a county, or one of several consolidated schools in an area in which only the county as a whole, with its county seat town in the center, can be considered as a community, or suppose that the school is one of 200 schools in a large city. What, then, is the school's community in each of these different settings? Does the individual school have *its* community, or does only the larger school system whose boundaries are approximately coterminous with the boundaries of a technically defined community have *a* community? Can the individual school be an integral part of a community only as that school considers itself a part of the total school system, or must the individual school define its community in terms of the geographical area from which it draws its pupils? To what extent must the individual school be oriented to its service area *as well as* to the larger area which can meet the technical definition of community? It is not enough to talk merely about school and community in general terms. The cornerstone of effective interaction between school and community lies in the relations between the individual school and its community. It is important, therefore, that the faculty of a given school have a clear concept of what its community is.

Any effort to define community in general or the community comprising the service area of a given school is fraught with hazards. Perhaps the technical definition of community should be retained for what it is worth, and then some other term should be sought for describing the sociological elements which comprise the important ingredients of the environment surrounding a given school. Perhaps it is wrong to search for *the* community of which *a given school* is an integral part, except in rural or small

¹⁷ Lloyd Allen Cook and Elaine Forsyth Cook, *A Sociological Approach to Education* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1950), pp. 48-51.

town situations in which it is obvious that there is only one school and one community.

The American scene is shifting so rapidly that older concepts of community are being distorted out of recognition. Ease of travel, population mobility, the decrease in rural population, the growth of cities, the expansion of suburban nonfarm residential areas, and the broadened base of most human associations are uprooting the moorings of earlier, more closely knit community life and bringing individual associations into many "community" configurations. A look at a single family helps to clarify the complex. The youngest child attends the neighborhood elementary school. An older child attends a junior high school some distance across town while the oldest child attends a senior high school more than a mile away. The family attends a church outside of the attendance area of the elementary school and the junior high school. The mother belongs to several clubs which draw membership from the whole city; the clubs' activities are centered in a downtown building. The father is a merchant and centers his activities in a downtown commercial establishment, the chamber of commerce, and the Lions Club. Most of the family's associations are outside of the elementary-school attendance area. The only contact with the neighborhood elementary school is the youngest child's attendance and the few contacts with the school growing out of such attendance.

Beers' description of this changing scene; *but* very helpful: ¹⁸

In popular homesickness for the old-time ^{ception} community in a familistic society, many of its emigrants forget that there were "shortcomings." It was a place of much intimacy—but limited privacy. It was a place of friendliness—but there were bitter quarrels. It was a place of neighborliness—but gossip could be petty and not always kindly. It was a place where many hearts were warm and some of the minds were narrow. It was a place of security, but the restraints of convention were often oppressive. It was a place where life was whole, to be sure, but sometimes life was also small. Some of the philosophers of the small community seem to understress these limitations. Being old enough to profit by memory's kindness, they select from the total context that which is happy and highly valued.

The last is individualistic, with communities of larger size: contractual, impersonal, indirect, and casual interaction; complex and elaborate division into groups and classes. Its regulation is more improvised, rational, and legal. It has a highly developed exchange economy, using money in a world market. Its emerging norms are those of efficiency. Its social solidarity is based mainly on the interdependence of specialized parts. Its social change is rapid and of broad coverage. It is sometimes characterized as an integrated society because of the ramifications of interdependence among its parts, but actually its need for further social integration seems more conspicuous than any present integration of its character. In this society the personality of each member is moored now here, now there, now nowhere! This is the kind of society in which most of us

¹⁸ Howard W. Beers, "American Communities," *The Community School*, National Society for the Study of Education, Fifty-second Yearbook, Part II (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1953), Ch. 2, pp. 16-20. Quoted by permission of the Society.

live today. It is the society of the metropolis, and it seems not to have, as a pervasive type of unit, the *community* as MacIver defined it.

The Puzzle of Diversity. In such an urban society as this, can the school, the church, or any other agency become a "community institution" as is urged by some of the leaders of churches and schools? Is the community a real enough entity so that a school can both express and serve its wholeness and integrity? Is the concept of community fatuous and outmoded?

In deciding the question, we face the diversity of social affairs as they are, and the possibility confronts us that there may be a variety of communities of different types and at different levels. This might involve some departure from the concept of a circle of people sharing their whole lives. It might involve adjustment so as to recognize patterns or mosaics of various sectors of different circles in which people share their lives segmentally in the different sectors. Among the varieties of communities thus recognized, some would include others, some would overlap, some would cover depths and attitudes of social class, some would include various combinations of subgroupings. Thus, a community would be individually identified according to the purpose one might have in seeking it, or by the particular features of social structure and function seen to exist—by the particular networks and subnetworks of communication and social interaction. The boundaries might be more often those of "public opinion" than of "traditional values."

Our task in this process of identification would be like the operation of "tuning" a radio in an atmosphere full of broadcasts that may be selected according to the listener's need or interest. If one tunes clumsily he may get only static or perhaps a blur from two or three stations. By finer tuning, however, one may choose programs of local origin and local reach or those encircling the world from remoter points with global hook-ups.

Borough, hamlet, village, neighborhood, township, town, beat, parish, county, magisterial district, precinct, school district, ward, block, city of the first or *n*th class, zone, trade area, special-service district, metropolitan area, state, region and section; we have a plethora of divisions in space at various levels of corporate existence. Many are formally bounded and charted on maps. Others are invisibly outlined in the social habits of their populations. They border or overlap each other, or some are contained by others. All of us live simultaneously in several of them, and in them we lose that will-o-the-wisp, "the community." And this is to say nothing of the multitude of special-interest organizations and associations that enfold us all. Clearly there is no alternative but to recognize a great diversity of communal structures.

If we accept this possibility of seeking many communities rather than "the community," we will have adjusted our concept to the realities of present-day society with its new arrangements of social communication and social participation. We may find the adjusted concept of community fully as useful now as the unadjusted concept was in an earlier period of American development, both for analyzing and understanding society and for planning the activities of groups, agencies, and institutions.

We will have put ourselves in position to recognize the actual diversity of society. We will have acknowledged that one person or one institution has concurrent and intermittent roles in various communities and may not properly confine his interest to only one. Furthermore, we will have prepared ourselves to understand that community solidarity, community consciousness, and community loyalty for most of us are not quite so much the automatic and unplanned products of simple living together as they seemed to be in the

isolated rural neighborhood. On the contrary, we will see that in many situations today they could exist—and would develop—only as results of definite and consciously undertaken plans and efforts of citizen-members. What we once took to be the essence of community—the existence of consciousness of common purpose, loyalty, integration, solidarity—are no longer chiefly by-products of adjacent habitation. Where and when they develop, they are more probably the fabricated products of direct efforts to produce them. This might involve us in the timeless controversy over whether natural simplicity excels manufactured (artificial!) complexity—whether the old communities were better than the new. But let us here observe only that what men *plan* to have can be always at least potentially better than that which they have at the start.

That is why movements now arise in countertrend to develop community schools, community churches, and community agencies of various types. There is a growing belief that we need, by conscious action, to put into the impersonal, contractual, bureaucratic structure of modern society some special provisions to perpetuate, or reproduce, or substitute for the personal, familistic values that were the social moorings of men in earlier times.

The Problem of Definition. No doubt these are the reasons we can find no satisfying definition of the community but only a cafeteria of definitions written into numerous books, these being nearly as diverse as the types of situations seeking to be defined and from which one may choose according to his need.

We have a persistent want for a simple definition that is clear, definite, and applicable anywhere on a moment's notice. It is the vagueness in meaning of community that keeps some potential community workers from "hitting the sawdust trail." "Will someone please tell me what a community is?" This is the recurrent cry of the slow convert, and he receives the highly unsatisfactory reply, "Ah! But that's the question!" One gets not a definition of the community but a description of the operations to be followed in discovering his own.

Each school embracing the purpose of community service—that is, aspiring to be a community school—will need to identify its communities, discover their various characters, inventory their resources, isolate their problems, and discuss their possibilities of development.

Nothing short of the study of cases will permit this identification. The particular structure of communities for any person, institution, or agency will be unique, though somewhat similar to the structure of communities for any neighboring person, institution, or agency. So one starts with himself—if a school, with its immediate constituency—then broadens the scope of observation outward in concentric circles to "foreign territory"—and for some of the concerns of literate people there is no foreign territory for the largest circle is the brotherhood of man! The largest community is from here to the edge of the world.

SYSTEM-WIDE ACTIVITIES

Each school is a part of a school system. In small districts the system of schools may consist of only one school; in larger districts the system consists of many schools. In districts of all sizes some school and community relations must be handled on a system-wide basis. In a one-teacher one-school district the teacher and the school trustees may manage all school

and community relations through informal, personalized conversation with members of the community. In larger school systems more extensive, and more formally organized, procedures must be used. But every school system, large or small, has some problems which must be discussed and dealt with by all the people of the district. Decisions on tax rates, bond issues, the establishment of secondary-school grades or junior-college grades, and the election of school trustees are but a few examples of issues that must be handled on a district-wide basis.

Hagman postulated six major purposes in contemporary school and public relations. These are: (1) to gain financial and other support for the educational program and its objectives; (2) to make an accounting to the public of the stewardship accorded the school trustees and the professional staff; (3) to advance the educational program; (4) to promote the partnership concept between the schools and other educative agencies in the community; (5) to improve the community; and (6) to establish educational leadership for improving school programs and, through schools, improving the community.¹⁹

In its yearbook entitled *Public Relations for America's Schools*, the American Association of School Administrators set forth the principles which should govern school public relations. Such relations (1) must be honest in intent and execution, (2) must be intrinsic, (3) must be continuous, (4) must be positive in approach, (5) should be comprehensive, (6) should be sensitive to the plural "publics" found in any community, and (7) should communicate ideas in simple form and language.²⁰

The methods used by different school systems in carrying forward system-wide relations with the community are many and varied. Contact is maintained continuously with local newspapers so that news about the schools may flow regularly to the readers. Men's and women's service clubs invariably focus their energies upon improving the local community; schools may well be among their interests if they are kept informed and their help solicited in service and improvement activities. Local school affairs usually intermingle with the affairs of municipal and county governments so that cooperative working relations must be maintained with the officials and governing boards of other governmental units. Local bond issues or changes in assessed valuation of local property or changes in tax rates require much contact with the public in general. Many school superintendents now issue pictorial types of annual reports so that school patrons and others may receive a visual overview of the work of the schools. Frequently educational matters at the state or federal levels require much time and attention by local school administrators. These and many other

¹⁹ Harlan L. Hagman, *The Administration of American Public Schools* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1951), pp. 340-349.

²⁰ American Association of School Administrators, *Public Relations for America's Schools*, Twenty-eighth Yearbook (Washington, the Association, 1950), pp. 16-33.

types of problems require system-wide plans and activities for school and community relations. Some problems can be handled only if there are system-wide plans. Such plans require coordination through the superintendent's office. Usually most of the labor involved in planning and conducting system-wide public relations falls upon the shoulders of the superintendent of schools and his central office associates.

THE ROLE OF THE INDIVIDUAL SCHOOL

In rural areas and small cities there usually is only one building housing elementary-school children. In such cases there is usually only one person who assumes the responsibility for general planning of the contacts between the school and its community. This person may be the teacher in a one-teacher school, the principal in a two- or more-teacher rural school, or the superintendent in the village or small city. The essential point is that in some school districts the individual school is relatively autonomous as far as its own relations with the community are concerned. In larger cities, however, the individual school is part of the city system of schools, and some of the relations between school and community are handled by the superintendent and his central office staff. In the larger city the individual school has a twofold type of relationship with the community: the larger relationship to the city as a whole and the relationship to its immediate service area.

The elementary school, regardless of the size of the district in which it operates, has an important role to play in its orientation to and relations with the community it serves. The mother-child relationship is perhaps closer during the elementary period than at any other time. Hence the principal and the teachers in an elementary school can make better contact with their community than is possible in the secondary schools. Also, the public at large comes into immediate contact with the program for public education largely through local school units. Superintendents' bulletins, annual reports of boards of education, and articles on education in the leading newspapers of the city are frequently generalized in character and somewhat remote from the interests of the individual citizen. At any rate, such general treatises do not strike the vital keynotes which are touched by information about the activities in the neighborhood school which Jane or Rufus attends. Because of the greater interest in the problems relating to members of one's immediate family, each elementary school occupies a strategic position in effecting community contacts and in disseminating the information necessary to the development of a citizenry intelligent about public education.

The complexity of the population of many cities makes centralized publicity somewhat ineffective, regardless of how well it may be organized and carried out. The social and educational status of school patrons differs

sufficiently from one part of the city to another that uniform methods and materials for informing the public cannot be used with equal effectiveness throughout the city. Each type of community may have distinctive attitudes regarding education, may look to the school for the achievement of different purposes, and may be interested through channels and types of information quite peculiar to the group. As the characteristic attributes of a neighborhood are discovered and analyzed, the public-relations program can be adapted to make it most useful and helpful to a particular school and its patrons.

The purposes of relations with the community centering around a given school are usually twofold: (1) to interpret the work of the school and the teachers to the community, and (2) to aid the superintendent in acquainting the community with the broader aims of the school system and in winning the cooperation and support of the public for the educational program of the city. In a measure the two purposes are complementary. As each local school supplies its share of the total educational program, it will have associated with it a certain portion of the total public. The extent to which the aims of the school system are advanced will depend largely upon the success of each principal in securing the cooperation of the community to which his school ministers. The two purposes named above imply that the principal participates extensively in activities which will inform his constituency regarding the work in his own school as well as the more general aspects of the school system which seem pertinent. It must also be recognized that community contacts facilitate the attainment of the objectives of the school. The effectiveness of an educational program depends in no small measure upon the cooperative endeavor of the home and the school. If these two most potent influences in the training of youth do not work in harmony and supplement each other, the results may be very discouraging.

Another factor which gives increased importance to each elementary school as a unit in community relations is the tendency toward the decentralization of administration in large cities. In many instances cities have grown so large and complex that the machinery for school administration which functions with comparative satisfaction in cities of lesser size does not seem to work effectively. Some students of educational administration have ventured the statement that adequate techniques for the administration of very large city school systems have not been developed. Whether or not this surmise is true, it is apparent that individual schools in large cities have a more remote and less direct relationship to the central offices than do schools in smaller cities. The former schools enjoy greater local autonomy and freedom than do the latter. This difference in latitude of operations gives opportunity for the development of greater individuality in local units and hence a better chance for adapting the school to the needs of the immediate community. This independence at once places

greater responsibilities and demands for leadership upon the principal. Paralleling the above tendencies one observes the gradual evolution of the professional, supervising elementary-school principal. The principal emerges from teaching assignments and administrative and clerical detail to become the educational leader and administrator of the elementary school. Supervisory organizations are being changed in several cities in order that administrative and supervisory duties may center in the principalship. As these developments continue it is likely that the elementary principal and each elementary school will assume a new role in community relations. Heretofore unexploited techniques for informing the public and securing their cooperation may be brought into action. The application of the old as well as the new methods of securing community contacts may be delegated largely to the elementary-school principal and his teachers. Each local school will thus serve increasingly important functions in the field of public relations.

TWO-WAY COMMUNICATION AND SERVICE

Through years of experience, and given a little research, it has become very evident that a school that is secure in its community, is cherished by its pupils, and is respected by the parents, is a school that is rendering splendid educational service which is understood, approved, and appreciated by its patrons. This type of school-community relationship can exist only when the school and its patrons have become genuine partners, a team, in fostering the development of children. A real partnership succeeds on the basis of thorough acquaintanceship of the persons involved—in this case, teachers, pupils, and parents. Knowing each other well must be accompanied by mutual respect, trust, and confidence. Each must accept the other person's fundamental desire to do the right thing, that which is to the best welfare of all.

A thoroughly wholesome, integrated type of school and community relationship emerges out of extensive and effective intercommunication between the school staff, the pupils, and the parents. Communication must be two-way, and it must be in language which is clearly understood by all. Most dissatisfactions or conflicts arise out of misunderstanding, much of which is due to the failure of the methods used in communicating effectively with the other persons. Generally speaking, citizens do not wish to have the schools "sold" to them through high-powered publicity campaigns. Well-intentioned and well-planned "information giving" programs are frequently received with apathy because patrons do not have a participating role. In general, citizens like to have "a part in the doing" as well as the "hearing about" those aspects of the school program in which they may feel competence and an appropriate place.

The importance of effective two-way communication and service has

been stressed by many writers. Olsen described 10 bridges between school and community.²¹ Muntyan stressed taking the school out into the community and bringing the community into the school.²² Jarman emphasized the partnership concept in school and community relations.²³ Several professional journals have devoted entire issues to the newer ideas about school and community relations.²⁴ The essential ingredients of the partnership concept and effective two-way communication and service should be prominent in all of the avenues used.

TEACHER-PUPIL-PARENT RELATIONS

Most of the literature on school public relations has dealt with the role and techniques of the superintendent and his central office associates. Only within recent years has the literature given attention to the significant place which classroom teachers have in school-community relations. Hence, it is not surprising that so few persons think of classroom teachers as the most strategic individuals in public relations. The lack of attention to the teacher's role is evidenced by the meager attention given to this topic in college courses taken largely by pre-service and in-service teachers, by the meager attention given to the teacher's role in college courses in school public relations, and by the customary absence of this topic in local school system in-service programs. Even a one-day local faculty workshop devoted to the teacher's role in public relations is almost an unknown quantity.

If the teacher's role in school and community relations is to be as extensive as it could be, certain factors must be recognized. First of all, there must be a deep conviction, and a vision, about the significant role of classroom teachers. System-wide conditions and practices must prevail so that the teacher may be an effective agent in public relations. Teachers themselves must be devoted workers who are proud of the profession of which they are a part. (Personnel policies must be such as to create loyalty and satisfaction in their work. A disgruntled teacher, or one who frowns upon teaching as a profession, cannot be effective in community relations. Teachers must have enough of a participating role in solving school problems and in decision-making so that they sense their own responsibility for the character and quality of the school program.) Teachers must be kept sufficiently informed about local school programs and pol-

²¹ Edward G. Olsen, *School and Community*, Part III (New York, Prentice-Hall, 1945).

²² Milosh Muntyan, "Bases for Integration of School-Community Effort," *Educational Leadership*, Vol. 8 (February, 1951), pp. 266-270.

²³ Arthur M. Jarman, "The Partnership Concept in School-Community Relations," *School Executive* (November, 1952).

²⁴ *School Executive* (January, 1953), *The National Elementary Principal* (December, 1952), and *Phi Delta Kappan* (February, 1953).

icies so that they are equipped to give accurate information when questions are asked. It is only through system-wide plans and procedures that the above requirements can be achieved.

Teachers themselves must be reminded that there are proper and improper places to discuss school problems. A truly professional worker is loyal to the institution from which he draws his monthly salary. If the school has problems and limitations which need correction, the proper place to put your shoulder to the wheel is in cooperative effort with fellow teachers and administrators. All members of the school staff should avoid "random babbling" about school problems upon the slightest provocation, regardless of the audience. Much harm is frequently done when school people inadvertently or maliciously air their gripes and their disagreements with existing practices at every opportunity. Everybody knows, and those who work in them know best, that public service institutions have not achieved perfection. Truly professional persons work from within to improve conditions, and, when plans have been developed, solicit the participation of citizens in the cause of school improvement. Such a procedure is quite in contrast to the continuous airing of gripes and adverse criticism of the present program. Those who cannot be professional in these matters, and who feel that they can no longer be loyal to the institution from which they draw their salaries, should have the fortitude to seek some other type of employment.

With a united front, classroom teachers can be the bulwark of school and community relations. The teacher's opportunities are many and varied. High priority should be given to the quality of the instructional program. Unless the school program is good, nothing else matters much. The children enrolled in a school constitute one of the most immediate and direct means of establishing contacts between the school and its patrons. The opinions of the school which parents hold are conditioned in no small measure by the reactions to the work of the school which children carry home daily. If the school is a vital factor in the lives of children, they will reflect its influences in the home. It is an exceptional parent who does not discuss frequently with his children their interests and their activities. If the school can guide the interests of children, those interests are shared by the parents. The loyalty of the children to the school is caught by the parents, and the opinions of children regarding the school become the opinions of parents. There is no thought here of implying that the school should continuously stage vaudeville to entertain pupils. That is entirely unnecessary. Good teaching can stimulate vital interests in the legitimate activities of the curriculum which will result in the most desirable educational growth of children and will cause pupils to discuss with their parents those aspects of school work which the profession should like to have them know better. Teachers can do much to give children kinds of information

which will help parents to discover that instructional areas which the parents cherish are still a part of school curricula. In modern activity programs the children may not realize the amount of time devoted to reading, or the spelling words we learned this week, or the punctuation and letter form learned while preparing a "thank you" letter to the dairy. Daily or weekly recapitulations by the teacher will enable children to recognize the extensive place given to the three R's or to citizenship in today's schools.

High priority should also be given by teachers to the quality of teacher-pupil relations. Thorough application of modern concepts of discipline, and other channels for applying good methods of human relations, do not mean soft pedagogy or chaos in classroom management. Children cherish orderliness that permits effective participation. They respect the teacher who respects them, who treats them with courtesy and understanding, who expects the best from them, and who insists that each and all live and work with each other as human beings should. Children who respect and love their teachers are ambassadors of good will for the school.²⁵

The third important channel which teachers can use in maintaining close relations with parents consists of the individual (teacher-parent conference) as a method of reporting to parents. Much was said in Chapter 6 about the values and techniques of the conference method of reporting. It should be recognized as one of the school's most valuable public-relations tools.

✓ Every teacher who is alert to her community relations opportunities will use many avenues in addition to the three that have been given high priority in the preceding paragraphs. Working actively with the P.T.A., inviting parents to visit at school, sending home an occasional note or calling the parent on the telephone when a child has had some unusual success, and sending home samples of work well done are some of the other avenues used by some teachers. In 1951 the National School Public Relations Association published a pamphlet entitled *It Starts in the Classroom*.²⁶ This is such a helpful bulletin, bristling with good ideas for classroom teachers, that every teacher and principal should read it.

²⁵ For further details about the teacher's opportunity through the instructional program and teacher-pupil relations, see: American Association of School Administrators, *Public Relations for American Schools*, Twenty-eighth Yearbook (Washington, The Association, 1950), Chs. 3 and 7; and the Department of Elementary School Principals, *The Public and the Elementary School*, Twenty-eighth Yearbook (Washington, N.E.A., 1949), Chs. 2 and 3.

²⁶ Copies may be obtained from the Association at 1201 16th Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

INFORMED PARENTS ARE CONSTRUCTIVE BUILDERS

One can hardly expect patrons to be enthusiastic about a school program unless they are reasonably familiar with it. Parents may tolerate without serious complaint if they are uninformed about the school's program, but a genuine cooperative working relationship between home and school can exist only if the parents know a good deal about what the school is striving to do and how the school goes about achieving its purposes. Informed parents is thus an objective for which every school staff should work.

Unfortunately very little is known about the best ways which schools can use to keep parents well informed. Perhaps there is no one best way; some methods are effective in some situations, whereas other procedures are more suitable in other places. It is probably true that each school should use a variety of methods. In a sense, all the procedures used in a given school in school-community relations make some contribution toward keeping parents informed about the school's program. In Elder's study 307 families in one elementary-school attendance area returned 528 questionnaires in which the parents expressed their degree of interest in receiving information in 18 areas (Table 35). Fathers and mothers filled out separate questionnaires. Parents were asked to check their degree of interest in each topic as (a) very much desired, (b) of some interest to me, and (c) could be omitted.²⁷ Only the first two types of responses are shown in Table 35; the percentage who thought an item could be omitted or who failed to check an item may be obtained by subtracting the sum of the two responses shown from 100. Several implications may be drawn from these data. The majority of the parents polled had at least some interest in all 18 topics, thus indicating a broad parent interest in all phases of school work. More parents chose moral and spiritual values, human relations, and participation in democratic ways of life as areas in which they are more interested in receiving information than any other areas. Ranking close behind these three, and chosen by a higher percentage than the remaining topics, were personality development, reading, and arithmetic. Statistically significant differences between the ratings of men and women were noted for items 3, 4, 5, and 18 in Table 35.

In some schools the P.T.A. has modified its conventional programs so that much more contact between the parents and their children's teacher is arranged. One method for achieving this closer contact is to devote one or more P.T.A. meetings each year to home-room meetings; e.g., instead of meeting in general session in the auditorium, the parents go to their children's classrooms and meet with the teacher. The teacher is the leader

²⁷ Franklin L. Elder, *Explorations in Parent-School Relations*, unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Texas, 1953.

TABLE 35: The Responses of 243 Men and 285 Women as to Degree of Interest in Information About 18 Areas of the School Program *

AREAS	PER CENT OF RESPONSES	
	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>
1. Methods of instruction in arithmetic:		
a. Very much desired	60	60
b. Of some interest to me	23	24
2. Methods of instruction in social studies:		
a. Very much desired	46	51
b. Of some interest to me	37	31
3. Methods of instruction in reading:		
a. Very much desired	60	69
b. Of some interest to me	25	16
4. Methods of instruction in spelling:		
a. Very much desired	55	63
b. Of some interest to me	25	22
5. Methods of instruction in penmanship and composition:		
a. Very much desired	40	47
b. Of some interest to me	37	31
6. Methods of instruction in science:		
a. Very much desired	37	39
b. Of some interest to me	35	40
7. Methods of instruction in music, art, and physical education:		
a. Very much desired	39	42
b. Of some interest to me	39	36
8. Methods of instruction in human relations (How we teach children to get along with others at work, play, and lunch):		
a. Very much desired	71	72
b. Of some interest to me	16	16
9. Methods of instruction in moral and spiritual values (How we teach religious tolerance, honesty, generosity, faith, kindness, appreciation, responsibility, reverence, etc.):		
a. Very much desired	74	74
b. Of some interest to me	14	11
10. Attendance (How average daily attendance affects state aid; when children should attend and when they should not; children missing school for family trips, etc.):		
a. Very much desired	31	29
b. Of some interest to me	33	37
11. Pupil's progress and achievement:		
a. Very much desired	56	60
b. Of some interest to me	23	25
12. Teachers, principals, and other school personnel (Experience, education, etc.):		
a. Very much desired	51	54
b. Of some interest to me	28	27

TABLE 35: The Responses of 243 Men and 285 Women as to Degree of Interest in Information About 18 Areas of the School Program (cont'd)

AREAS	PER CENT OF RESPONSES	
	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>
13. Clubs and activities (Home-room clubs, safety patrol, assemblies, etc.):		
<i>a.</i> Very much desired	27	25
<i>b.</i> Of some interest to me	42	48
14. The value of education for a successful life:		
<i>a.</i> Very much desired	40	45
<i>b.</i> Of some interest to me	25	24
15. The school's objectives:		
<i>a.</i> Very much desired	58	63
<i>b.</i> Of some interest to me	26	20
16. How we teach responsible, self-directed, constructive participation in democratic American ways of life (How discipline problems are handled, reasons for school regulations, pupil participation):		
<i>a.</i> Very much desired	68	71
<i>b.</i> Of some interest to me	19	16
17. Methods of instruction in the wise use of leisure time:		
<i>a.</i> Very much desired	53	59
<i>b.</i> Of some interest to me	28	26
18. Methods used in developing a wholesome, well-integrated, mentally and physically healthy person:		
<i>a.</i> Very much desired	62	69
<i>b.</i> Of some interest to me	22	16

* Adapted from Franklin L. Elder, *Explorations in Parent-School Relations*, unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Texas, 1953, pp. 151-155.

for the session. At the end of an hour, all parents re-assemble in the auditorium for announcements and a social hour. Some schools devote the September P.T.A. meeting to home-room sessions, and each teacher has a chance to meet all the children's parents, to project the year's work for the parents' information, to illustrate the textbooks and other learning aids to be used, and to discuss various school policies relating to such matters as exclusions for illness, safety measures, and the lunch program.

The P.T.A. in some schools has been active in soliciting the help of the faculty members in devoting a whole meeting to a description and explanation of instruction in one curriculum area. The school used in Elder's study had two such meetings in one year. At the November meeting the parents went to the classrooms of their children's teacher, and the teacher led the discussion on the school's program in arithmetic. The topics covered were: general objectives, scope by grade levels, materials used, meeting

individual differences, drill, homework, and evaluating pupil progress. Most of the time in each room was spent on the work of the grade represented by the teacher's class. Prior to the meeting the faculty had prepared a 15-page mimeographed bulletin in which many of the details were set forth in outline form. Parents could follow the outline as the teacher discussed the various topics. Parents were encouraged to take the outlines home with them for further reference. The ensuing February the same plan was followed, but the topic for discussion was the school's program in science-social studies. The 12-page mimeographed bulletin prepared by the faculty for this occasion covered the following topics: objectives, scope, organization into units, materials and resources, meeting individual differences, contributions to other subjects, skills taught, and evaluation of pupil progress.

Schools which use individual conferences as a method of reporting to parents frequently invite the parent to spend at least one-half day visiting and observing in the classroom prior to the conference. Wherever this practice prevails parents have an opportunity to become acquainted with the school's program by seeing it in operation. Schools in which this practice prevails are finding that an increasing number of fathers are coming for the half-day visit and the conference. In a few places employers in business and industry are permitting employees (fathers or mothers) to be absent from work for two or three hours twice a year for such visits and conferences.

Some schools supplement the personal contacts between teachers and parents with printed brochures describing different phases of the program. The Seattle schools, for example, published the following titles in 1952: *How We Teach Arithmetic*, *How We Teach Reading*, *How We Teach Spelling*, *How We Teach Handwriting*, and *How We Teach Citizenship Through the Social Studies*.²⁸ Table 36 shows the degree of value parents in one elementary school placed upon 10 different types of school contacts. For each item in the table the percentages are based upon the responses of only the individuals who participated in that activity. Note the high value placed upon those activities which provide personal contact with the teacher and instructional activities.

²⁸ Other bulletins helpful in working with parents are: Laura Zirbes, *What Is Wrong with Today's Reading Instruction?* (Columbus, Ohio State University, 1950); Albert Grant, *Let's All Join Hands for Better Handwriting* (Menlo Park, Cal., 1951); Willard C. Olson, "When Should My Child Learn to Read?" pp. 5-9; Ruth B. Hewitt and School of Education Bulletin, Vol. 19 (October, 1947). pp. 5-9; University of Michigan, Clyde E. Hewitt, "Help Your Child Be Ready for Reading," *A Monograph on Language Arts*, No. 65 (Evanston, Ill., Row, Peterson and Co., 1951); Eleanor G. Robinson, "A Letter to Parents," *Ginn and Company Contributions in Reading*, No. 8 (Chicago, Ginn and Co., 1951); and Willard C. Olson, "Seeking, Self-Selection, and Pacing in the Use of Books by Children," *The Packet*, Vol. 7, No. 1 (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1952).

TABLE 35: The Responses of 243 Men and 285 Women as to Degree of Interest in Information About 18 Areas of the School Program (cont'd)

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<i>a.</i> Very much desired	27	25
<i>b.</i> Of some interest to me	42	48
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<i>a.</i> Very much desired	40	45
<i>b.</i> Of some interest to me	25	24
15. The school's objectives:		
<i>a.</i> Very much desired	58	63
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<i>a.</i> Very much desired	68	71
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17. Methods of instruction in the wise use of leisure time:		
<i>a.</i> Very much desired	53	59
<i>b.</i> Of some interest to me	28	26
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* Adapted from Franklin L. Elder, *Explorations in Parent-School Relations*, unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Texas, 1953, pp. 151-155.

for the session. At the end of an hour, all parents re-assemble in the auditorium for announcements and a social hour. Some schools devote the September P.T.A. meeting to home-room sessions, and each teacher has a chance to meet all the children's parents, to project the year's work for the parents' information, to illustrate the textbooks and other learning aids to be used, and to discuss various school policies relating to such matters as exclusions for illness, safety measures, and the lunch program.

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²⁸ Other bulletins helpful in working with parents are: Laura Zirbes, *What Is Wrong with Today's Reading Instruction?* (Columbus, Ohio State University, 1950); Albert Grant, *Let's All Join Hands for Better Handwriting* (Menlo Park, Cal., 1951); Willard C. Olson, "When Should My Child Learn to Read?" University of Michigan, *School of Education Bulletin*, Vol. 19 (October, 1947), pp. 5-9; Ruth B. Hewitt and Clyde E. Hewitt, "Help Your Child Be Ready for Reading," *A Monograph on Language Arts*, No. 65 (Evanston, Ill., Row, Peterson and Co., 1951); Eleanor G. Robinson, "A Letter to Parents," *Ginn and Company Contributions in Reading*, No. 8 (Chicago, Ginn and Co., 1951); and Willard C. Olson, "Seeking, Self-Selection, and Pacing in the Use of Books by Children," *The Packet*, Vol. 7, No. 1 (Boston, D. C. Heath and Co., 1952).

TABLE 36: Degree of Value Placed upon Ten Parent-School Relations by Men and Women Who Participated in Each Type of Activity *

ACTIVITIES	PER CENT OF RESPONSES	
	Men	Women
1. September meeting of parents with teachers in the home rooms:		
a. Very valuable	65	83
b. Of some value	31	17
2. November meeting by home rooms, discussion of the arithmetic program:		
a. Very valuable	78	70
b. Of some value	20	28
3. February meeting by home rooms, discussions of science-social studies program:		
a. Very valuable	60	63
b. Of some value	36	33
4. Observation in the classroom:		
a. Very valuable	81	83
b. Of some value	18	16
5. Individual Parent-Teacher conference:		
a. Very valuable	84	86
b. Of some value	15	13
6. Written report to parents (a 3-page check list plus teacher comments):		
a. Very valuable	63	60
b. Of some value	29	34
7. Other home-room meetings of parents and the teacher:		
a. Very valuable	56	46
b. Of some value	44	40
8. General P.T.A. meetings (six were held during the school year):		
a. Very valuable	31	32
b. Of some value	58	53
9. Articles about the school in the local newspaper:		
a. Very valuable	43	40
b. Of some value	55	51
10. Assisting in drawing up or evaluating school objectives:		
a. Very valuable	44	64
b. Of some value	56	32

* Adapted from Franklin L. Elder, *Explorations in Parent-School Relations*, unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Texas, 1953, pp. 161-163. Questionnaires were returned by 243 men and 265 women.

PARENT PARTICIPATION IN SOLVING SCHOOL PROBLEMS

One's loyalties are usually rooted most deeply in things one has helped to fashion. People have pride in and a feeling of ownership about their own homes, the church they helped to build, the park which they helped to secure and develop, the library to which they give volunteer service, or the neighborhood beautification in which they all participated. School people need to recognize the psychology inherent in the sense of loyalty, pride, and personal ownership that arises out of "having helped to do it." Children are parents' most precious possessions, and parents certainly cherish a part in determining the kind of education their children get. Schools can hardly expect, nor should they try, to escape parents' concern for or part in shaping their children's education.

The question is not whether parents should participate in solving school problems; the question is, "In what aspects of school programs and school problems can parents participate effectively, and by what procedures can they help in the most constructive ways?" To say that parents (or any citizens) should participate in all phases of curriculum making or in resolving all types of school problems is to do loose thinking. If parents are competent to solve all school problems there is hardly any need for the professional preparation of teachers; we might as well abandon all standards for the professional preparation and certification of teachers and turn the schools over to untrained lay persons. The fundamental challenge is to identify the types of problems on which parents can and should help, and also to differentiate the problems which must be resolved by *professionally* competent individuals.

As yet research has not focused its attention upon the differentiation of the problems on which parents can help from those which must be left with the professional staff. In the absence of pinpointed research on this issue, one must generalize from logic and such experience as has been had in various school situations. In general, it may be said that parents are competent to decide on matters of policy, but that the technical aspects of implementing policy must be left to the professional staff. Whether reading shall or shall not be taught in a school is a matter of policy; *how* it shall be taught and *what* materials and activities shall be used are professional decisions. Whether the school shall have a lunch program and how it shall be financed are matters of policy; the staff, equipment, and sanitation requirements and the management of the daily schedule are professional matters. Whether the school needs and should have a safety patrol is a matter of policy; the management and operation of the safety patrol are professional jobs. Whether school time shall be given to children's participation in fund drives, ticket sales, and poster or essay con-

tests is a question of policy based upon educational values; how the campaigns or contests shall be handled with the children is a professional task. Confusion and unpleasant experiences can be avoided if there is clear thinking about the areas in which parents are competent to help as well as the areas which must be left to the professional staff.

Schools should strive to identify an increasing number of problems on which parents can participate in making policy decisions so as to expand parents' participatory roles. If this is done, there are frequent occasions in which the faculty will be surprised at the competence and quality of thinking which parents do. In Elder's study a faculty committee, working with a few parents, developed a statement of objectives for the school during a summer workshop. On the first page of a six-page document, seven objectives were stated briefly (Table 37); the next five pages provided explanatory descriptions of each of the seven objectives. During the ensuing school year 111 parents participated in evaluating and revising the tentative statement. The 111 parents were divided into four groups. One group was asked to write objectives out of their own background and thinking without reference to any previously prepared list of objectives. One group was handed copies of the tentative statement of objectives prepared in the workshop. This material was read and discussed at a group meeting; then the parents were asked to suggest additions or changes, to help improve the wording or sentence structure, and to appraise the degree of appropriateness of each of the items. The third group was sent a copy of the tentative statement of objectives several days before they came together in a group meeting. At the meeting the procedure was the same as for the second group. The fourth group was mailed a copy of the tentative statement and requested to mail their comments and suggestions to the school. Whether parents write objectives out of their own backgrounds and thinking, or study a set of objectives beforehand, or hold a group discussion on the topic of objectives, there is substantial agreement on what the objectives for an elementary school should be. Fathers rate some objectives more highly than mothers or teachers (Table 37). The high value placed upon items 2 and 5, especially by fathers, should give schools new courage for augmenting their efforts along those lines.

In addition to helping in numerous policy making tasks, parents can assist in providing materials and their own time on certain projects. If some construction is to be undertaken, some schools are so situated that parents can contribute materials and can come with shovels, hammers, and saws and actually help build the structure. If soil erosion is to be stopped, or the school grounds shrubbed, or the cafeteria manned, or the library staffed with extra helpers, or other similar "doing" jobs, parents can have a real part in helping to solve school problems and rendering service in so doing.

TABLE 37: Percentage of Fathers, Mothers, and Faculty Members Rating Each Objective as Excellent*

OBJECTIVES	PER CENT OF RESPONSES		
	Fathers †	Mothers ‡	Teachers §
1. Skill in the use of the fundamental tools of learning	95	87	92
2. Understanding of, and adjustment to, the physical and cultural world	90	78	83
3. Skill in getting along with other people	80	81	79
4. Acquisition of moral and spiritual values	85	72	74
5. Responsible, self-directed, constructive participation in democratic, American ways of life . . .	90	82	74
6. Wise use of leisure time	85	72	70
7. Development of a wholesome, well-integrated, mentally and physically healthy person	85	87	87

* Adapted from Franklin L. Elder, *Explorations in Parent-School Relations*, unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Texas, 1953, pp. 69-70.

† 20 fathers.

‡ 67 mothers.

§ 23 teachers.

USING COMMUNITY RESOURCES TO ENRICH THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

It is commonplace today to talk about the many ways in which children's education can be vitalized and enriched through generous use of the resources available in each community. Community resources may be classified into people and places, objects, phenomena, agencies, occupations, industries, and so forth. The people in a community consist of the parents who have children attending a particular school and non-patrons who live within the same attendance area, as well as persons who reside or work within the geographical area conveniently accessible to the school. The radius of this geographical area will vary from community to community. In places with high population density and good transportation facilities, anyone within the city or within a tri-county area can come to a given school quite easily. In sparsely settled areas with poor roads, accessibility may have to be defined quite differently.

The assistance of school patrons may be solicited for a variety of service activities. Some of these service possibilities were mentioned in the preceding section. Others consist of asking parents to help with the administration of periodic vision and hearing tests, weighing and measuring of pupils, certain lunchroom or library duties, and as substitute teachers. Many schools have worked out a plan whereby parents from a volunteer group are called on, without pay, to take charge of classes for a few hours, a half-day or even a full day so teachers may be relieved for committee work, to attend meetings of local service groups, or to attend professional meetings and conferences.

The use of resource persons in the instructional program may extend geographically to any persons accessible to the school. Practically every community has a variety of adults who have had unique experiences, have interesting hobbies, have interesting collections of some kind, or have information about occupations, industries, commerce, etc. Persons in federal, state, and local governmental agencies usually have valuable information to impart to children. The main problem is to identify the persons and their special contributions. A P.T.A. committee can work with the school librarian in preparing a "human resources file." Some industries have recognized their opportunities for enriching the community's educational program by providing in-service training for their own employees so that they may do a better job when invited to meet with a group of pupils. The American Iron and Steel Institute prepared a bulletin designed to help their employees to be a better *Teacher for a Day*.²⁹

The use of resource persons from the community provides one avenue for continuing school contacts with those who do not have children attending school. Holy and Wenger reported a recent study of families with children in Ohio public schools.³⁰ The study included all of the 135,161 families in 93 school districts (or portions of districts) located in 62 counties. The sampling of 86,442 families in 18 cities showed that 33 per cent of the families had children attending the public schools; 67 per cent of the families had no contact with the school through their own children because many families had no children, while the children of other families had long since graduated from the local schools. The percentage of families having children in the public schools varied greatly in these eighteen cities; in Ward I in Canton only 14 per cent of the families had children in school, whereas 52 per cent in a portion of Chillicothe had children in school. Forty per cent of the 31,808 families in 62 rural districts had children in school, the range being from 21 per cent to 60 per cent. The gradually increasing age of our population and the large percentage of families having no children in the public schools makes it very important that special efforts be put forth to maintain contacts with these families.

Non-human community resources are usually more numerous than most teachers realize. The grocery store, the dairy, the farm, the post office, and the fire station are familiar to all. But these are the mere beginnings of community resources. The full scope of such resources is frequently not known by teachers until a systematic survey is made. Such surveys have been made in numerous school systems. The plan followed in the Waco, Texas, schools is illustrative. In the summer of 1951, 68 teachers participated in a six-weeks workshop in community resources.

²⁹ Copies available from American Iron and Steel Institute, 350 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.

³⁰ I. C. Holy and Roy Wenger, "Families with Children in Ohio Public Schools," *Educational Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXI, No. 7 (October 14, 1942), pp. 189-201, 216.

The school district and its surrounding territory was divided into small areas, each including 12 to 20 city blocks. Teachers, in teams of two's and three's, covered every portion of each area, identifying the parks, wooded areas, industries, stores, and agencies that appeared to have educational potentialities. The officials in charge of each were interviewed, and if mutual agreement and understanding were achieved, the teachers filled out a form which gave all the information needed by a teacher who might wish to take a class on a visit to that place.³¹ The school office duplicated enough copies of each report so that the library in each school could have a permanent file of the information. This survey of resources was to be followed later with an "employment opportunities" survey for the benefit of the secondary schools. An interesting feature about the Waco survey was the active cooperation of the local Chamber of Commerce. The latter sent 200 letters to local business people, advising them of the purposes of the workshop and of the proposed visits by the teachers. In other communities individual teachers or a small committee has undertaken a comparable survey.³²

FORMAL CONTACTS WITH PARENTS

Every school has periodic and occasional contacts with parents by letter, by telephone, or through pupil progress reports. Many principals and teachers do not realize that every letter that goes out from the office to someone in the community is a messenger of mutual relationship. Once the significance of this contact is realized, greater care can be taken to use good letter form and a style of writing which will create respect and good will.

The office telephone can be a boon to community relations or an effective vehicle for strained relations. Many are the times that the author has paid special attention to telephone technique while waiting in the outer office or while the conversation with the principal was interrupted by a call from someone in the community. If commercial houses used the gruff, blunt, and frequently discourteous methods of answering the telephone that are sometimes heard in schools, they would soon go out of business. Good telephone technique can be acquired and should be expected of office helpers and every member of the faculty.

The periodic report card is another formal and regular contact with

³¹ *Learning from Our Community: Bulletin in Community Resources* (Waco, Texas, Waco Public Schools, 1951).

³² The Austin, Texas, Public School issued the following curriculum bulletins: Zelda Beth Ruble, *An Inventory of Plant Life, Rocks, and Soils In and Near Austin*; Maude Wallace, *That Might Be Used in the Study of Elementary School Science*; and Kathleen Wiseman, *A Resource Unit on Field Trips In Elementary School Science*; and Kathleen Wiseman, *A Resource Unit on Field Trips In Social Studies*.

parents. Many schools fail to capitalize upon the opportunities afforded by the monthly or six-week reports of pupil progress which are issued. In the majority of cases the report card is a colorless, stultified routine which evokes criticism from dissatisfied parents and little or no reaction from others. The conventional report card is not a constructive device for informing parents of the work of the school or the progress of the pupil or for developing cooperation between the home and the school. To overcome these weaknesses of the commonly used report cards, some schools are supplementing them with personal letters from the principal or teacher. Such letters, whether carried home by children at the regular report period or at other times, give occasion for explaining in simple language the purpose of activities recently initiated in the school, setting up school objectives which depend upon home cooperation for their development, expressing appreciation of the interest and training given by parents and suggesting other activities in which cooperation is desired, recognizing satisfactory achievements with definite suggestions as to how parents may help children, seeking cooperation in the adjustment of problem children, as well as numerous other items which might be suggested.

PARENTAL CONTACT WITH PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES

In a previous chapter a variety of pupil personnel services were discussed. In nearly every instance the occasion for special service to the child creates a situation in which the parent has a vital interest and into which the parent could and should be drawn in order that the parent may be informed, may comprehend the problem, and may lend his aid in reaching a better solution to the problem. Periodic medical and dental examinations are cases in point.

The occasions for special services for children provide vital opportunities for genuine integration of school and community. The parent realizes that the school is sincerely interested in the child's welfare. The teaching staff has an opportunity to discuss the nature and complexity of the problem with the parent and to give the parent a part in arriving at plans for dealing with the situation. The parent also becomes aware of the community-wide circumstances in which such problems arise, and thus becomes a better informed citizen to take such community action as is needed. Through an indirect method the school is thus making a real contribution to community education and community improvement.

In view of the child welfare, educational, and community-service potentialities of enlisting the active participation of parents in pupil personnel services, it seems astonishing that schools should not have capitalized more extensively on this method. The author knows some schools which actually discourage the presence of parents at the time of health examina-

tions—their presence complicates the efficiency of the examination procedure! If such viewpoints continue, it is likely that the schools will become more estranged from their communities than they now are.

WELFARE GROUPS AND GOVERNMENTAL AGENCIES

Another source of community contacts which is growing in importance is welfare groups and the various governmental agencies. It is not uncommon for a single school to have contact with a dozen or more non-governmental agencies such as child welfare societies, service clubs, and religious agencies. Contacts with governmental agencies may number eight or more; those most frequently working with schools are the health department, the public library, the police department, the fire department, and the juvenile court. It is generally understood that the school cannot assume to be the sole educator of the child, nor can the school assume full responsibility for the many social and economic factors which must be considered and provided if the work of the school is to be effective. Agencies other than the school inevitably enter the picture. The more extensive the cooperation between the school and the outside forces the more effective may be the work of both, and the higher will rise the position of the school in the estimation of the community.

OPPORTUNITIES THROUGH THE PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATION

The Parent-Teacher Association is by far the most frequently found organization of adults which takes an active interest in the school and cooperates with the teachers in carrying on certain phases of the work. The fact that certain parents manifest enough interest in the school to join the Parent-Teacher Association, the mothers' club, or some adult study group makes it evident that these organizations constitute ideal bodies through which the principal and his teachers can disseminate knowledge about modern educational procedures. The intelligent principal is constantly alert to seize every opportunity to direct the activities and the programs of adult groups so that they will be a constructive influence in the school and will be learning about the scientific developments in modern education instead of imposing outgrown ideas upon the school.

The objectives of the Parent-Teacher Association are:

1. To promote the welfare of children and youth in home, school, church, and community.
2. To raise the standards of home life.
3. To secure adequate laws for the care and protection of children and youth.
4. To bring into closer relation the home and the school that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of the child.

5. To develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as will secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, social and spiritual education.

These objectives are sufficiently clear-cut to place the association in the forefront of school-community relations, *provided* the leadership of the school faculty and of the association is sufficiently alert and ingenious to make the P.T.A. a dynamic organization. In many places, unfortunately, the P.T.A. is a non-functional organization which a few parents join because of a feeling of obligation. For almost every item of school-community relations heretofore mentioned, the P.T.A. could be the group that spearheads the activity. Other activities in which the P.T.A. could be active include the sponsorship of child study groups, parent use of books on child care and training provided in the school library, and the night use of the gymnasium or auditorium for adult recreational activities. Some schools have found much parent response to hobby projects in which the school facilities and a trained leader are available for groups who wish to work in clay or oils, camera fans, or carpentry projects. The time is ripe for the P.T.A. to meet the challenge which has always been there.

HELPING TEACHERS TO BECOME MEMBERS OF THE COMMUNITY

School-community relations will remain on a superficial level unless teachers can become real members and citizens in the community. Many of the activities previously discussed in this chapter normally result in closer and more frequent contacts between teachers and parents, and therefore help greatly in giving the teacher status and a mutually cooperating role in parent-child-school relations. Some schools augment the teacher-home relationship by encouraging individual teachers to visit in the home of each pupil. Some schools have children in kindergarten or first grade attend school on a half-day basis the first month or six weeks of the school term to give those teachers time for home visits.

The community membership of the teacher must go beyond close working relations with the parents of the children taught. There should also be membership and normal participation by teachers in self-chosen social and service clubs. In some schools parents volunteer to take classes for a few hours each week or month to enable teachers to be active members in local civic organizations; in other instances school systems provide substitute teachers to achieve the same objective.

In recent years business and industry have cooperated with educators in bringing about a closer relationship between school faculties and the businesses and industries in a community. Business-Industry-Education days have become common. Teachers need to know the characteristics of the economic base which makes the community tick. Visits to business

establishments and tours through industrial plants are frequent eye-openers to teachers, unearthing types of occupations and types of industries which teachers did not know existed in the community. Business and industry, on the other hand, need to know what the schools are doing, and how schools and business and industry may cooperate in building a better community. Some industries have seen enough merit in augmenting such cooperative relations that they have published bulletins for the in-service education of their own employees.³³ Leaders in business and industry should have a scheduled plan whereby they can visit in the schools. In Glencoe, Illinois, the Board of Education publishes periodic bulletins entitled *Know Your Schools*. These are written for the people of the community and distributed to all citizens.

THE SCHOOL SERVES COMMUNITY NEEDS

In recent years there has been much discussion about the role of the school in the community. In much of this discussion, the term "community school" has been used with numerous meanings. In fact, the community school has been projected as sort of an ideal. In order to understand clearly what the "community-school ideal" is, it seems worthwhile to examine various ways in which the school serves the community. The writer's ensuing analysis may lack completeness, or misplacement of the categories described below, but the paragraphs which follow represent an effort to identify the ways in which schools serve communities. These ways are arranged in a sequence which represents increasing degrees of integration between school and community.

1. *The school provides a selected portion of children's education.* The very fact that schools have been instituted among men, that they are receiving continued support, and that they have been allocated somewhat definite educational functions, means that they must be rendering a service to the community which supports them. It may be trite to mention this simple fact, but it is overlooked in many discussions about schools serving their communities. The degree of integration between the school curriculum and the realities of community life may be small or it may be extensive, but the basic service to the community is still there.

In many elementary schools today the relationship between the school curriculum and community life is casual in that the objectives sought by the school are mostly deferred values which the child is thought to need in later life. The subjects of study (and the teachers who teach the subjects) represent accumulated bodies of knowledge. To the extent that the student learns what is being offered, the student becomes inducted into

³³ American Iron and Steel Institute (350 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.), *Your First Meeting: Getting Acquainted With Teachers, and Partners in Community Enterprise*.

the community of scholars in whatever narrow segment of the culture is represented by a given subject. There is only that indirect relationship between what is learned at school and community life which the student himself makes. The degree of integration between the school curriculum and life in the community is meager, unless the school has something other than the conventional subject curriculum, and unless there are other avenues for closer ties between the school and the community.

2. *Community groups use the school plant.* In most communities today various adult groups use the school plant for one or more purposes. The smallest amount of adult use is represented when the P.T.A. is the only group which uses the school building for its meetings. Parent study groups, youth organizations, Americanization classes, and recreational groups using the school for periodic gatherings reflect a broader base for community use of the school plant. As the number and variety of adult groups, and the number and variety of types of uses, increase, one can recognize the gradual expansion of the degree of school and community integration. The after-school, week-end, and vacation-time use of school facilities for children and youth represents a portion of the community's uses of the school plant.

The usage of the school plant by community groups represents another service which the schools or at least the school plant render to the community. Integration between school and community in such usage may range from near-zero to the community-school ideal. The near-zero point is reached when adult groups merely rent the use of some school facility for some purpose that has nothing to do with education or community improvement.

3. *The school's curriculum is adjusted to the educational needs of the children who attend.* Orienting health services and health instruction to the health conditions of pupils and their home environments and health practices is a good example of adapting the school program to the needs of the children who attend. Pre-kindergarten or pre-first-grade classes for non-English-speaking beginners, careful selection of reading materials to soften peculiar intercultural tensions, modification of the grade placement of basal texts, and modification of reports to parents to effect better communication with parents are other examples of curriculum adjustments. Whatever a school does to adjust its services and instruction to the unique characteristics of its clientele is a special service to its community and assists in bringing school and community closer together.

4. *Using community resources in the instructional program.* The use of community resources discussed in an earlier section represents a fourth stage in school and community integration. The extent of this integration is determined by the intimacy with which faculty, pupils, and laymen participate in the various activities which utilize community resources in the

instructional program. Since the community is benefited by having its resources used in children's education, this type of relationship represents another of the school's services to the community.

5. *The school itself is a model community.* The school as an embryonic, typical community is not a new concept. The idea that the school itself should be a model democratic community has been widely accepted and has been an ingredient in every forward-looking school program since 1890. The central feature of the idea is that the school, in all its internal aspects, should represent the kinds of human relationships, moral ideals, mutual respect, and cooperative procedures which exemplify the type of community life that should obtain in society at large.

The concept of the school as a model community can hardly be discounted, even by the most conservative thinkers. Children cannot be expected to acquire the ideals and behaviors of a democratic society if their life at school is a daily contradiction of that very objective. Although the idea of the school as a model community seems highly appropriate, in fact, almost inescapable in a democracy, many schools are a long way from its attainment. If the concept is actually achieved in the school, the school's program will have moved a long way toward community integration.

6. *The school engages pupils in projects in the community to vitalize the school program.* There are numerous published accounts which illustrate the ways in which different schools have engaged class groups in community survey or community improvement projects.⁸⁴ Beautifying the school grounds, raising gardens at home, making the playground free of stones and holes, clearing a vacant lot for added play space, surveying the breeding places of mosquitoes, and checking on neighborhood sanitation are but a few examples of such projects. Pupil enterprises of this kind require a caliber of teacher leadership and community understanding far beyond the ordinary. The adults in the community must have a genuine appreciation of need for functional activities in making learning effective.

7. *The school curriculum is built around common activities of living.* This stage of school and community integration is an extension of the preceding one in that the basic core of the curriculum has departed from the usual subject offering and its place has been taken by centers of interest geared directly to the common activities of everyday living. One sees in

⁸⁴ Samuel Everett, ed., *The Community School* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1938); Paul Hanna, *Youth Serves the Community* (New York, D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936); Lillian Peck, *Teamwork on the Home Front* (Austin, Texas, The Hogg Foundation, 1943); P. W. Terry and V. M. Sims, *They Live on the Land: Life in an Open Country Southern Community* (Tuscaloosa, University of Alabama, Bureau of Educational Research, 1940); Elsie Ripley Clapp, *Community Schools in Action* (New York, Viking Press, 1939); Henry J. Otto and others, *Community Work-shops for Teachers* (Ann Arbor, University of Michigan Press, 1942), Ch. 3; Edward G. Olsen, *School and Community Programs* (New York, Prentice-Hall, 1949).

this type of program the emerging earmarks of the experience curriculum as described in Chapters 3 and 7. Instructional units in the area of home and family life, conservation, transportation, communication, among other things, are illustrative, provided they are not just "school studies" but come to grips with the realities of everyday practice in the community, and engage pupils and parents in genuine efforts in studying and resolving better ways of dealing with problems and practices than had prevailed before the project was undertaken.

8. *The school engages in community activities for community purposes.* The dividing line between this stage of community and school integration and the two preceding ones is a matter of degree and emphasis. In all three of these descriptions the actual "working in the community" may be an occasional project by one or more classes. If this be true, then the school may be said to occasionally reflect one of these channels for school and community integration; the relationship is not one which characterizes most of the school program most of the time. The degree of school and community integration, regardless of extent, is determined by the placement of the emphasis. In stages 6 and 7 the emphasis is still largely upon the usefulness which these projects have for school purposes, i.e., the extent to which the projects can enhance the objectives sought by the school. In stage 8, however, the school engages in a project because the school is assisting the community in some enterprise which the community desires. If the village sanitation system is in need of review and revision, or the city charter requires revision, or new occupations should be developed, or agricultural production must be raised, the adults enlist the aid of school groups in taking the steps necessary to the solution of the problem. The activity, of course, should have educational value for youth. Otherwise the activity is merely an example of the exploitation of youth for community benefit. Previous experience with this type of school-community relation has been limited. It is not clear whether elementary-school children are mature enough for these types of projects.

9. *The true community school.* The true community school would probably incorporate all or most of the preceding stages and activities, but, in addition, would go beyond any of them in achieving a thoroughgoing integration between school and community. At present a true community school probably does not exist in this country. To have a community school there must first be a community. In the light of the earlier treatment on "What Is A Community?" it must be clear that, except in certain remote and isolated places, few elementary schools are situated in places wherein "community," in the technical sense, can be identified. A second requirement of the true community school is that the total community is actually geared to the education function. A third requirement is a role for the teacher which is not commonly found at present. The whole matter is too extensive for full treatment in this volume. The interested

reader should consult the sources listed below.³⁵ Muntyan's summary statement is a fitting conclusion to this discussion.³⁶

The sum of this analysis can be put rather simply, if one is genuinely interested in establishing the principles on which a true community school can operate. To begin with, the community school serves a direct community function through helping solve the problems of the community. In doing this, it must also help develop a sense of community within the social group. Further, if this is not to be merely a temporary amelioration of a continuing situation, the school must also help the group develop the skills of the community process. If it is to achieve these goals, it must be a community itself and exemplify the community processes in its adult and pupil relationships. More than that, it must utilize community activities and problems in its program and must take the school group into community life for the mutual benefit of both school and community. It must personify the authority of the community, serving the total community—adults as well as pupils. It must supplement its own authority by using various experts in the community as resource people whose lay expertness is integrated with the school's efforts by the corps of expert teachers on the staff. The development of the judgmental process must be primary to a large extent for pupils and to a certain extent for adults. Finally, the school may not identify itself only with the immediate community, since the "rules of the game" which structure the local community are but reflections of regional and national patterns and are not the private property of the local community. Effective community can be developed and maintained only as the community relationship between the local, the regional, and the national and international groups is recognized and furthered. Otherwise, efforts at developing community schools will be but partial and incomplete and will be unable to avoid, in the long run, the fate of earlier such efforts—disintegration.

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³⁵ National Society for the Study of Education, *The Community School* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1953), Chs. 2, 3, and 4; B. Othanel Smith and others, *Fundamentals of Curriculum Development* (Yonkers, N. Y., World Book Co., 1950), Ch. 22.

³⁶ Milosh Muntyan, "Community-School Concepts: A Critical Analysis," *The Community School*, National Society for the Study of Education, Fifty-second Yearbook, Part II (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1953) p. 47. Quoted by permission of the Society.

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Provisions for Administering the School

THE PRECEDING CHAPTERS of this book have dealt primarily with trends and modern viewpoints in elementary education, the present-day functions of the elementary school, curriculum and instruction, the several special services, and the internal organizational and administrative practices appropriate to the implementation of a modern program of elementary education. The present chapter focuses upon provisions for administering the school. In Chapter 4 the role of organization was described, the relationships between organization and administration were identified, and the functions of administration were outlined. Administration was defined as the act or process of administering. Three functions of administration were specified as (a) creating organization, (b) developing administrative or educational policies, and (c) the development and application of procedures appropriate to the adopted organization and policies. Much was said in preceding chapters about functions (a) and (b); in some instances the development of appropriate procedures was discussed. In the present chapter the emphasis is upon the operational level, the point at which adopted policies and procedures are operated. The actual day by day operation of the various phases of the school program requires the time of various members of the school staff in doing the things that have to be done, making records and reports, contacting people, making arrangements, writing letters, preparing materials, and dozens of other activities that could be named.

Scientific knowledge about the administrative function in elementary schools is limited. Several surveys have been made of the duties and activities of elementary-school principals.¹ These studies have been inventories of existing practices as carried forward by the principals included in each, and of the problems and difficulties encountered by those prin-

¹ Department of Elementary School Principals, *The Elementary School Principalship*, Seventh Yearbook, Ch. 4, and Twenty-seventh Yearbook, Ch. 6 (Washington, N.E.A., 1928 and 1948); D. F. Geyer, *A Study of the Administrative and Supervisory Duties of Teaching Principals in the Small Elementary School*, Bulletin of Information, Vol. 22, No. 7 (Emporia, Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, July, 1942); J. H. Hodges and F. R. Pauly, *Problems of Administration and Supervision in Modern Elementary Schools* (Oklahoma City, Harlow Publishing Co., 1941).

cipals. The studies have been valuable in portraying the multitudinous array of duties which befall the elementary-school principal, and the difficulty of many of the tasks. No one, however, has taken a creative look at, or made a critical analysis of, the scope and character of the administrative function in elementary schools per se, or in elementary schools of different sizes in different sized school systems.

In the literature, administrative functions and administrative activities are intermingled with supervisory functions and activities. Perhaps this intermixture cannot be escaped as long as one deals with leadership roles, but it ought to be possible to distinguish administrative activities at the operational level. What specific management routines are there that require daily or periodic attention in the operation of the lunchroom, the management of textbooks and supplies, the recording and reporting of attendance, the transportation of pupils, the use of community resources, pupil personnel services, among other things? Until a comprehensive inventory of these operational activities is available, it is difficult to gauge the difficulty of the tasks or to know what type of staff member is qualified to handle each activity. After such an analysis has been made it might be possible to portray a comprehensive view of the administrative function in elementary schools. At present we do not have the information in terms of which one could decide how large an administrative staff is needed and how those staff requirements might vary by size of school, what qualifications the different members of that staff should have, or what space and equipment provisions the school should have.

The whole question of office personnel, office space and room arrangements, and allocation of responsibility needs extensive study so that firm foundations can be laid for future planning. Such knowledge as is now available is the result of individual and pooled experience, some of which has been wisely and creatively guided, but much of it has resulted from one school system or one principal copying what was judged to be a good idea without examining it critically. Most of what is said in the subsequent sections of this chapter is "pooled experience" or what someone thinks is best practice. Only small items here and there are the results of careful experimentation. This very fact should motivate active research in this field.

STAFF AND OTHER PROVISIONS

Provisions for administering the school consist of staff and appropriate facilities within which the various activities can be performed with dispatch. In a sense, the whole school staff participates in administering the school. Classroom teachers perform dozens of administrative tasks. Some of these tasks are inescapable accompaniments of teaching activities, whereas

other tasks could be performed by office helpers, if the latter are available. In most schools the principal engages in numerous administrative routines. The latest survey showed that supervising principals spend 29.3 per cent of their time in administration and 15.1 per cent in clerical work.² The data do not reveal what proportion of the 29.3 per cent is spent in routine management duties and what proportion is devoted to the professional leadership phases (creating organization, developing administrative policies and procedures). A common criticism has been that principals spend too much time in clerical and routine activities.

In many schools secretaries and clerks have been added to the elementary-school staff in order to relieve the principal and teachers from some of the clerical and routine duties. No research is at hand to show whether the employment of office help means that duties heretofore neglected are now performed, whether duties previously done poorly are now performed in proper fashion, whether the office help merely relieves the principal for other services, in what ways the office help relieves teachers, or how the principal and teachers use the time which has been freed. In most schools the members of the custodial staff perform some administrative duties, hence custodians must be included among the persons who share the administrative function.

THE PRINCIPAL AND ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL

A discussion of the personnel available for administering the school must begin with a definition of terms. The N.E.A. Department of Elementary School Principals classified (in 1928 and in 1948) as "supervising principals" all principals with 75 per cent or more of their time free from classroom teaching duties; all principals with less than 75 per cent of time free from teaching duties were classified as "teaching principals."³ Although these two broad categories are convenient groupings for statistical purposes, the breadth of each category tends to hide differentials in the time factor which may have important bearing upon the opportunity which the principal has for engaging in administration and supervision.⁴

² Department of Elementary School Principals, *Twenty-seventh Yearbook, op. cit.*, p. 87.

³ *Ibid.*

⁴ The writer feels that at least three classifications should be used: (a) "head teacher" to identify those who teach full time throughout the official school day and attend to selected administrative duties during after-school, evening, and week-end hours, (b) "teaching principal" to identify those who do not teach full time but do teach more than one-fourth of the official school day, and (c) "supervising principals" to include those who teach less than one-fourth of the official school day. The term "official school day" is used here to pinpoint the basis upon which the proportion of time devoted to teaching is calculated; proportion of the official school day is quite different from proportion of the total time per day that a principal devotes to his work.

Assistant principals are defined even more loosely. In some schools the title of "assistant principal" is given to a senior teacher who is in charge of the building when the principal is away; such an assistant principal may be called on in the event of an emergency but otherwise carries no administrative duties. In other cases the assistant principal is a full-time teacher who assumes certain administrative duties during before- or after-school hours. Other assistant principals devote a portion of the official school day to administrative duties, the range being from one period per day to full time devoted to the administrative function. This vagueness in terminology must be kept in mind as one reads the comparisons which follow.

The absence of some type of a scientific base for the allocation of principals and assistant principals to elementary schools is evident in Tables 38 and 39. Supervising principals may be found in all sizes of schools. Teaching principals may be found in any sized school under 800 in enrollment. Assistant principals are certainly not numerous in elementary schools. Where they do exist they are almost entirely on a full-time basis as administrative officers. In general, assistant principals are found in the larger schools, but there are some assistant principals in schools with teaching principals, and some in schools under 200 in enrollment which also have supervising principals. No doubt this heterogeneous pattern of assignment of principals is the result of variations in local school policies and finances as well as state salary schedules. In Texas, for example, the state salary schedule does not provide eligibility for a full-time supervising principal until the school has 20 or more classroom teacher units; librarians and other special teachers cannot be counted as classroom teacher units. Most school systems in Texas, in which local finances permit, exceed the state minimum formula by assigning full-time supervising principals to each elementary school of designated size; in some school systems a school with 8 or more teachers merits a full-time principal, whereas in other school systems the school must have 10, 12, or even more than 12 teachers before a full-time principal can be designated. Comparable circumstances and practices may be found in other states.

The writer was unable to locate studies depicting the extent of teaching loads carried by principals in various sized high schools. Neither was it possible to locate a study which summarized school policies regarding the appointment of assistant principals in junior or senior high schools. Secondary schools are likely to have registrars, deans of boys and girls, and counsellors in addition to principals and assistant principals. Is the administrative and pupil personnel load of secondary schools so much larger than the comparable load in elementary schools that the added personnel is needed? Or, does convention rather than service load merely dignify the secondary schools with more adequate staff?

TABLE 38: Size of 370 Elementary Schools Having Teaching Principals and 1290 Schools Having Supervising Principals *

SCHOOLS	PER CENT HAVING	
	<i>Supervising Principals</i>	<i>Teaching Principals</i>
<i>Enrollment:</i>		
Under 200	2	38
200-399	27	47
400-599	34	14
600-799	20	1
800-999	9	0
1000 and over	8	0
<i>Number of teachers:</i>		
Less than 10	11	70
10-19	56	29
20-29	23	1
30-39	7	0
40 and over	3	0

In schools with supervising principals, median enrollment was 520 pupils (average, 570 pupils) with an average of 18 teachers. In schools with teaching principals, median enrollment was 253 pupils (average, 254 pupils) with an average of 8 teachers.

* Adapted from *The Elementary-School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, Twenty-seventh Year-book (Washington, Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A., 1948), pp. 43-46, 55.

TABLE 39: Assistant Principals in Elementary Schools Having Supervising and Teaching Principals *

ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS	PER CENT IN EACH ENROLLMENT GROUP HAVING ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS					Total
	<i>Under 200 Enroll- ment</i>	<i>200-599 Enroll- ment</i>	<i>600-999 Enroll- ment</i>	<i>1000 and over Enroll- ment</i>	<i>Enroll- ment Not Given</i>	

In 1410 schools with supervising principals:

None	88	90	74	35	82	81
1 part-time	0	2	0	2	1	1
1 full-time	12	8	25	57	13	16
More than 1 full-time	0	0	1	6	4	2

In 413 schools with teaching principals:

None	98	96	67	†	98	96
1 part-time	1	†	0	†	0	1
1 full-time	1	4	33	†	2	3
More than 1 full-time	0	0	0	†	0	0

* Adapted from *The Elementary-School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, Twenty-seventh Year-book (Washington, Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A., 1948), pp. 59-60.

† Less than ½ of 1 per cent.

‡ No schools in this enrollment group.

SECRETARIAL AND CLERICAL PERSONNEL AND SERVICE

Clerical work constitutes an important problem for the elementary-school principal. The details of office routine, unless alleviated in some fashion, impose an almost insurmountable burden upon the principal, and, unless systematic management of clerical work is developed, the principal soon loses himself in a barrage of office routine. Investigations of the way elementary principals spend their time have shown repeatedly that administrative and clerical details consume time and energy far out of proportion to their importance among the functions of the principal. As a group, principals themselves are aware of the disproportionate amount of time spent upon routine matters and would like to devote more of their time to the more important duties of their position.

The present status of secretarial service in elementary schools may be appraised from two sources. Table 40 summarizes the amount of secretarial help available in 1823 elementary schools in 1947. The reader should remember that the 1823 schools represented in the table may not be representative of the 20,000 or more elementary schools in the United States which have principals. The sample is most likely to misrepresent schools having teaching principals. The data in Table 40 show that 35 per cent of all schools with supervising principals are without secretarial help, and only 47 per cent have one or more full-time secretaries. Eighty-two per cent of schools with teaching principals are without secretarial service.

The types of secretarial and clerical work done by principals and teachers and the amount of time given to such work in schools without office help provide another avenue from which to examine the present situation. Whittenburg prepared a check list which included all possible duties of a secretarial nature required in a local school system.⁵ His list contained 77 items classified into six groups, namely: clerical (38 items), handling people (13 items), mimeographing, typing, and dictation (12 items), financial (8 items), U. S. and school mail (3 items), and miscellaneous (3 items). The school system in which he was an elementary-school principal consisted of three elementary schools with 41 teachers, one junior high school with 17 teachers, and one senior high school with 22 teachers. The enrollment in the three elementary schools was 1265 pupils; in the junior high school, 445 pupils; and in the senior high school, 450 pupils. Each of the three schools had a teaching principal who taught two classes per day. There was no secretarial help of any type in the elementary schools. The junior high school had a full-time supervising principal, a full-time secretary, and the equivalent of one student assistant. The senior high school had a full-time supervising principal, an

⁵ Thomas S. Whittenburg, *A Study of the Secretarial Duties Performed in the Sweetwater Public Schools*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1949.

assistant principal who taught half-time, a full-time secretary, and the equivalent of one student assistant. All 90 of these individuals participated in the study. The secretaries and student assistants filled out the check list each day; teachers and principals filled theirs out at the end of each week. The records were kept for one semester.

TABLE 40: Secretaries in Elementary Schools Having Supervising and Teaching Principals *

SCHOOL SECRETARIES	PER CENT IN EACH ENROLLMENT GROUP HAVING SCHOOL SECRETARIES					Total
	<i>Under 200 Enroll- ment</i>	<i>200-599 Enroll- ment</i>	<i>600-999 Enroll- ment</i>	<i>1000 and over Enroll- ment</i>	<i>Enroll- ment Not Given</i>	
In 1410 schools with supervising principals:						
None	67	45	20	9	31	35
1 part-time	15	23	13	7	17	18
1 full-time	18	32	63	66	48	44
2 or more full-time	0	0	4	18	4	3
In 413 schools with teaching principals:						
None	90	77	33	†	84	82
1 part-time	10	17	33	†	14	14
1 full-time	0	6	33	†	2	4
2 or more full-time	0	0	0	†	0	0

* Adapted from *The Elementary-School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, Twenty-seventh Yearbook (Washington, Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A., 1948), pp. 59-60.

† No schools in this bracket.

Whittenburg found that the elementary-school principals averaged 30.5 hours per week devoted to duties classified as secretarial and clerical. The junior high school principal gave 11.0 hours per week and the senior high school principal and the assistant principal together devoted 23.0 hours per week to these same types of duties. On the average, each elementary-school principal spent 6.1 hours per day, the junior-high-school principal 2.0 hours per day, and each principal in the senior high school 2.0 hours per day in secretarial and clerical work. Classroom teacher time devoted to similar duties averaged as follows per teacher per week: elementary school, 4.5 hours; junior-high-school teachers, 2.0 hours; and senior-high-school teachers, 1.67 hours. The most time-consuming duties for elementary-school teachers were: (1) making out daily, weekly, and monthly cafeteria reports, (2) counting and wrapping lunchroom money, (3) keeping an accurate check of daily attendance, (4) caring for the mimeograph, and (5) meeting parents and visitors and answering their inquiries. The most time-consuming duties for junior-high-school and senior-high-school teachers were (1) keeping an accurate record of pupil attendance and (2) caring for tardy and absentee reports.

Studies such as Whittenburg's raise many questions. What is the exact nature of the types and volume of secretarial work in elementary, junior, and senior high schools? Are there real differences which justify the historical advantage given to secondary schools? What aspects of school practices need examination in order to reduce the amount of clerical work? When attendance and absentee accounting, or handling lunchroom funds and reports turn out to be the teacher's most time-consuming clerical tasks, one cannot avoid raising basic questions about school procedures. What types of clerical duties are so closely associated with instruction and teacher-pupil relationships that these services must be retained by teachers? Which duties could easily be shifted to an office worker? Would teachers do better teaching and give more time to pupils if they were relieved of clerical tasks? These questions merely help to sharpen the need for careful research so that wiser plans may emerge. The national Department of Elementary School Principals recommended that every elementary school should have part-time clerical assistance; when the enrollment reaches 400 there should be one full-time competent clerk; as enrollment rises above 400, clerical help should be increased proportionately above one full-time person so that schools of 800 or more pupils will have two full-time school secretaries.⁶ Can this recommendation be accepted in view of what is now known about secretarial service in elementary schools?

In 1944 Smallenburg sent a questionnaire to 33 cities in California, Arizona, Oregon, and Washington to ascertain policies regarding secretarial assistance.⁷ Replies were received from 30 cities; 6 cities were over 100,000 in population while the remainder ranged in population from 4000 to 100,000. Twenty-four of the 30 cities provided clerical assistance in their elementary schools. The pupil-clerk ratio varied from 311:1 to 1557:1; the median ratio was 510:1 and the mean ratio was 688.1. Smallenburg then projected the following recommendations for his own school system, Burbank, California:

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS		JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS		SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS	
Enrollment	No. of Clerks	Enrollment	No. of Clerks	Enrollment	No. of Clerks
Less than 400	½	Less than 400	1	100-300	1
401-800	1	401-600	1½	301-450	1½
801-1200	1½	601-800	2	451-600	2
		801-1000	2½	601-750	2½
		1001-1200	3	751-900	3
				901-1050	3½
				1051-1200	4

⁶ Department of Elementary School Principals, *The Elementary-School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, Twenty-seventh Yearbook (Washington, N.E.A., 1948), p. 67.

⁷ Harry Smallenburg, "Assignment of Clerical Assistance in Elementary and Secondary Schools," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 110 (February, 1945), pp. 37-38.

In the above recommendations for Burbank it is worthy to note that junior-high-school clerical allocations are approximately double those for elementary schools, and that the allocations for senior high schools are approximately three times greater than for the elementary schools. Research should turn its attention to this problem.

In the absence of sound criteria for determining the type and amount of secretarial service required in elementary schools of different sizes, each principal must attempt to move forward with what is or can be made available, and to study his own situation at all times. To assist in obtaining maximum service from clerical assistants, some principals have found serviceable a definite schedule of assigned responsibilities for each secretary. Careful job analyses have shown that certain duties are periodic and can be performed best if done consistently by the same persons. Additional efficiency in handling office work has been obtained by preparing for teachers an information book consisting of some 30 or more answers to questions which new, as well as old, teachers ask of the principal and members of the office staff. In addition to explaining the policies of the school regarding principal visitation, use of equipment, fire-drill, pupil conduct, substitute teachers, school library, pupil helpers, and examples of all school forms and blanks properly made out with explanations, this booklet contains a chart showing the assigned duties of each secretary so that teachers might go directly to the secretary in charge.

Evaluation of secretarial service has been difficult in the past because of the absence of usable standards or criteria. The check list which Davis prepared for her study of nonteaching services provides the framework against which local practices can be checked. Because of its helpfulness in this regard, the complete list of items is reproduced here.⁸

- A. COMMUNICATION SERVICE BY PERSON-TO-PERSON CONVERSATION—The secretary should utilize every conversation with callers from the outside or with pupils and school personnel as a means for interpreting and making more effective the educational program of the school.
1. The secretary's appearance, speech, and manner are such as to represent the school favorably.
 2. The secretary's desk and office are in orderly condition, such as to represent the school favorably.
 3. Callers to the office, including pupils and teachers, are greeted courteously and given prompt assistance.
 4. The secretary is informed on school policies and activities and is able in many cases to handle the needs of the callers without referring them to the principal.
 5. The secretary observes conventions of courtesy and businesslike procedure in the use of the telephone.

⁸ Hazel Davis, *Personnel Administration in Three Non-Teaching Services of the Public Schools*, Contributions to Education, No. 784 (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939), pp. 296-299.

enough to have such a staff member. Sometimes the general office suite is conceived as including health and first-aid quarters, record or vault room, textbook and supply storage rooms, and teachers' rest room and workroom. In large elementary schools in New York City, the following administrative provisions are made: general office, 644 sq. ft.; principal's office, 322 sq. ft.; medical and dental suite, 644 sq. ft.; custodian's office, 250-322 sq. ft.; mimeograph room, 322 sq. ft.; record or vault room, 322 sq. ft.; department heads' and assistant principal's offices, 322 sq. ft.; and sound control room, 12 sq. ft.⁹ These several spaces total 2838 to 2915 sq. ft., depending upon the amount of space devoted to the custodian's office. The total area is equivalent to the space required for two and one-half large classrooms. No doubt the New York City plans represent an outright effort to provide elementary schools with adequate administrative quarters. Smaller schools might have to adjust their provisions to a smaller scale. It seems apparent, however, that office quarters should not be increased or decreased in direct proportion to the size of the school. Adequate administrative services in small schools might require office quarters not radically different from those required in large schools, the chief variation being in the number of secretaries, the number of principals, and the number of conference rooms for which provision must be made.

The administrative and service offices in most elementary schools are scattered around in different parts of the building. The principal's office is usually near the main entrance, but the health suite may be somewhere else, the supply room in another location, and bookrooms in several parts of the school. The scattering of offices makes for financial economies in that otherwise unused spaces can be utilized; it does disperse the administrative and secretarial activities and interferes with efficient organization and supervision. If the secretary is to be given responsibility for supply management, much of her time is used in traveling from the general office to and from the supply room; when she is in the supply room she cannot keep her eye on the telephone or office callers. The same problems arise when the mimeograph room is separate from, and removed a distance from, the secretary's office. If the health suite contains cots on which sick children may rest while awaiting removal to their homes, someone should be at hand so that a sick child is not left by himself. Unless the cots can be seen by the secretary from her usual station, either the secretary, a teacher, or someone else must leave his customary duties to remain with the sick child. The question which is raised here is whether scattered offices make for efficient administration. Instead of using the otherwise unused spaced for offices and service rooms, someone should experiment with an office layout in which all of the essential services

⁹ N. L. Engelhardt, N. L. Engelhardt, Jr., and Stanton Leggett, *Planning Elementary School Buildings* (New York, F. W. Dodge Corp., 1953), p. 155.

which should be coordinated are housed in a specially designed area peculiarly arranged to give the administrative function a chance to flourish. The types of office spaces to be included in such a layout will be explored in subsequent paragraphs.

The general office suite, as defined here, consists of the principal's private office, a private office for the assistant principal if the school is large enough to have an assistant principal, an outer office which contains a reception room, a counter, a secretary's space and desk, mail boxes for teachers, and a bulletin board. If the school is large enough to have more than one secretary, the additional secretaries should have private office space to enhance the efficiency of their work. Most schools have some special space provision for mimeographing, either as part of the general office or as part of a teachers' work room. In many schools such work areas are a part of the general office suite.

Several considerations should be kept in mind when locating and designing the general office suite. It should be located near the main entrance to make it conveniently accessible to the public. The secretary's area should be located so as to control the waiting-room and entrance to the principal's private office, the latter being provided with a separate exit to the corridor in addition to an entrance from the outer office. Doors throughout the administrative suite should have glass panels to aid in the diffusion of light, to improve supervision, and to protect the workers from idle gossip. Wherever feasible, partitions within the general offices should have glass panels. Such panels are particularly important in the wall which separates the principal's office from the outer office.

A counter, separating the waiting room from the secretary's space, is essential. It enables the secretary to organize her equipment and work more efficiently, provides for the storage of regularly used office supplies and forms, and keeps callers from milling around in the secretary's work. The waiting room should be large enough to seat comfortably the usual number of callers. Teachers' mail and supply boxes should be located in the outer office or at some other place which is mutually convenient for teachers and secretary. The size of the space allowed for the secretary is an important consideration. In most schools this space is not very large, only about 12' x 12' or 15' x 15'. An area including from 150 to 250 sq. ft. is large enough for a secretary's desk, a few file cabinets, and perhaps a small work table. No doubt this is adequate if there is a separate mimeograph or teachers' workroom in which the duplicating machines are placed. If the secretary is to do mimeographing of all kinds, including duplicated materials which teachers desire for instructional purposes, the secretary will have to be away from her office a good deal of time if all duplicating machines are placed in a separate room. It might be wiser to enlarge the secretary's area to provide spaces for duplicating machines, work tables, adding machine, a long carriage typewriter, etc. Through such

an arrangement all of the equipment needed by the secretary for all her duties is in one location, thus providing continued supervision of the telephone and office callers while other services are being rendered.

In the general office suite there should be ample planned space for filing cabinets distributed in such a way that the files most needed by each individual are situated close to his usual location. Many large school systems, of which Seattle and Minneapolis are examples, have developed standard files and filing procedures for elementary-school offices. Certain kinds of records, especially pupils' permanent records, are so important that safe storage places should be provided. The trend seems to be to avoid the substantial walk-in vault. In its place schools are now providing "protected" files or rooms which have a several-hour fire rating. In larger schools, the most feasible method is to provide a "protected" room; in smaller schools special fire-resistive file cabinets may suffice. Each school should have a small safe built into the wall for the storage of small valuables and overnight storage of *small* amounts of money. The record of vandalism against schools is such that large sums of money should not be left anywhere in the building overnight.

CONFERENCE ROOMS

The way in which the school relates itself to its community will determine the number and variety of conference rooms available. A review of Chapters 6, 9, and 13 will reveal many uses which a modern school will have for conference rooms. There should be at least one room large enough for tables and chairs to seat from 15 to 25 persons. Such a room will be used frequently as the principal meets with various parent and civic groups. It will also be used by P.T.A. committees and other parent groups working with the school on various projects. Unless it is a large school, faculty meetings can be held here. Faculty committees will also find this room useful. Preferably the room should be equipped with, or have ready access to, a built-in kitchenette so that coffee or cold drinks can be served at group meetings. If this large conference room adjoins the teachers' lounge, the kitchenette can serve both rooms. If kitchenette facilities cannot be had, the school lunchroom should be equipped to make the serving of drinks and a snack convenient in the conference room.

Individual tests given to pupils, planning or work sessions by pupil committees, and teacher-parent conferences require a number of smaller conference rooms located in various parts of the building. If the conference method of reporting to parents is used, school schedules should permit a certain proportion of these conferences to be held during school hours. In this event the teachers will need places outside the classroom in which private conferences can be held. At present there is no formula to guide

schools in determining the number of small conference rooms needed. It is likely that there should be one for every six teachers in the school. Each conference room should be at least 8' x 8' or 10' x 10' to accommodate a table and four to six chairs.

Conference rooms are recent additions to elementary-school building designs. The need for such rooms is emerging so rapidly that they ought to be included in all new buildings. Whenever possible, old buildings should be remodeled to include enough conference rooms to enable the faculty to put a good school program into full operation.

THE HEALTH SUITE

School health programs cannot be expected to be effective unless the school plant makes appropriate space provisions for its operation. The extent of specialized health facilities will depend upon the way in which the local health program is carried out. In communities in which the periodic medical and dental examinations are given in the offices of private practitioners, the school will not need separate medical and dental examination offices, each with its appropriate equipment. On the other hand, if these periodic examinations are made at school by school-employed or public health agency personnel, the school will require facilities for the administration of the examinations.

Apart from the decision regarding the necessity for medical and dental examination offices, all schools have need for appropriate office space for certain health services. Screening tests for vision and hearing are usually administered by school personnel at the school. Supplies and facilities for first-aid treatment are required in every school. Children who become ill at school should have a chance to lie down while awaiting removal to their homes. Space should permit the placement of one or more cots, the number depending upon the size of the school. A small toilet room and, if possible, a shower stall should be a part of the health suite.

In order to economize staff time in the supervision of children who become ill at school, it would be well if the health suite could be located so that the cot room would be visible, through glass panels in walls, to the secretary in the general office. Such a plan would be feasible only if the major administrative offices were located in an arrangement which would permit a high degree of coordination of the administrative activities.

STORAGE ROOMS

The school with adequate storage rooms is yet to be found. Those responsible for designing schools have not studied the storage problem adequately and translated storage needs into building plans. The newer

buildings usually provide more liberally for storage spaces than did the older schools. Five major types of storage spaces are required. There should be one large or several smaller rooms for the storage of textbooks. The flexible usage of basal texts in schools today makes it desirable to have enough shelf space in bookrooms so that sets of books may be taken out or returned easily. Shelves containing books two layers deep and three layers high do not permit convenient usage. The safest storage for books during summer months is in a bookroom. Bookrooms need not be located near the general office suite. The librarian or individual teachers may be asked to serve as custodians of the bookrooms.

Shortage of storage space for consumable instructional supplies forces some schools to distribute to classrooms each shipment as it arrives. Such practice overloads the storage spaces in classrooms and frequently leads to wasteful usage. To avoid overloading the classrooms, some schools purchase in smaller quantities, thus losing the advantage of larger quantity purchases. The most economical methods of purchase and usage result when the school has a single ample storage room for consumable supplies. Preferably this room should be a part of the general office suite, located so that the school secretary can easily take care of incoming shipments, check invoices against articles received, place the merchandise in the storeroom, and assume responsibility for filling requisitions from teachers.

Few schools have storage space for surplus furniture. It is imperative for each school to have some furniture which is not in use all the time. There are extra tables, extra chairs, extra pupil desks, extra teacher's desks or chairs, and other items which require temporary storage. Unless a storage room for furniture is available, the surplus furniture must be stored in classrooms, halls, or other rooms in which it is unneeded and merely occupies space that could better be used for educational activities.

A storeroom for janitor's supplies and a room for the storage of safety patrol equipment are two other usually forgotten needs. Many are the furnace rooms or custodian's offices which are cluttered to the ceiling because there is no other place in which custodial supplies can be stored. Suitable and adequate storerooms add much to efficiency in operating a school.

TEACHERS' LOUNGE AND WORKROOM

In recent years school plant designs have included provisions to enhance the comfort and convenience of teachers. Nearly every elementary school built during the past decade has included a teachers' lounge equipped with comfortable chairs, a davenport or day bed, a vanity dresser, a toilet room, and attractive drapes and pictures. The lounge is a place to which teachers may retire in odd moments during the school day, before school in the morning, or after school closes in the afternoon. Teachers

who are experiencing undue fatigue may lie down for a short rest; others may wish to have a few minutes away from the hustle and bustle of daily duties or an informal chat with fellow teachers. The lounge should be equipped with a kitchenette or have ready access to a place in which a cup of hot coffee or a cold drink may be obtained. Unless separate lounges are available for men and women teachers, the central lounge should have an adjoining powder room for women.

A workroom for teachers has been added to many recently built schools. It is a place which contains a mimeograph, other types of duplicating machines, the supplies necessary for the use of these machines, and one or more tables. The teachers' workroom has been developed on the assumption that teachers have need for the preparation of teaching materials of various kinds, and that the preparation of such materials can be expedited in a central place especially equipped for that purpose. To date no research has been undertaken to show the extent to which, or the purposes for which, teachers use a workroom. The economy in having centralized equipment seems clear, but there is no evidence to indicate teacher attitude toward such an arrangement or the extent to which a workroom is actually a convenience to teachers. Do teachers in schools with workrooms prepare more teaching materials for their pupils than do teachers in schools without workrooms?

Whether teachers should be expected to make their master copies or to cut stencils and to operate the duplicating machines is an issue that must be faced. If the objective is to relieve teachers of clerical routines and to allocate such tasks to secretaries, is there a need for a teachers' workroom? Might it be wiser to augment the space allocated to secretarial work in the general school office so that the central office can render this service to teachers on an efficient basis? The questions raised about teachers' workrooms are merely a part of the larger issues about secretarial and clerical service in elementary schools.

SAMPLE OFFICE LAYOUTS

The office layouts portrayed in Figures 34, 35, 36, and 37 should not be viewed as models; they are merely examples of administrative spaces provided in recently built elementary schools. The proposed office plan shown in Fig. 34 was prepared by a superintendent of schools.¹⁰ In the article in which he described the proposed office layout, Mr. Bell argued in favor of eliminating the counter; he maintained that it served as a barrier to effective relations with pupils and parents. In the Lloyd H. Bugbee Elementary School in West Hartford, Connecticut, the storerooms

¹⁰ Millard D. Bell, "The Elementary School Office Fronts for the Whole System," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 49 (February, 1952), pp. 64-65.

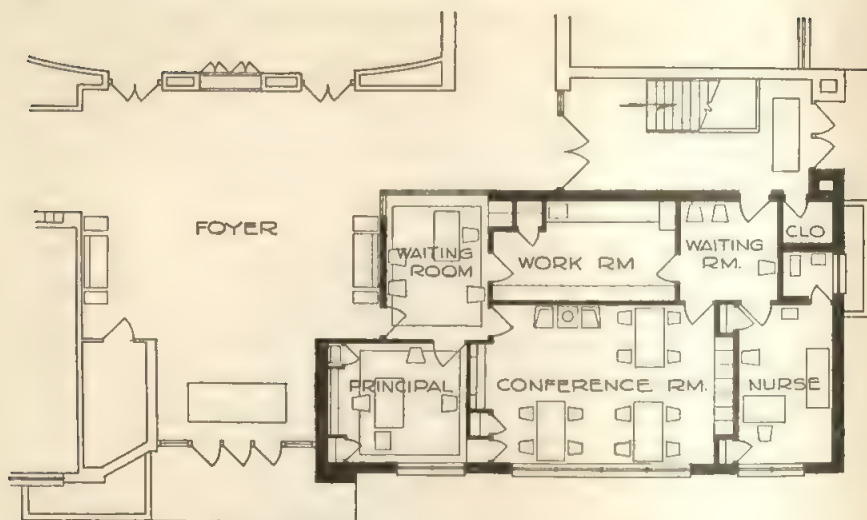


FIG. 34: Proposed office layout for an elementary school. Courtesy of *Nation's Schools* and Millard D. Bell, Superintendent of Schools, Wilmette, Ill.

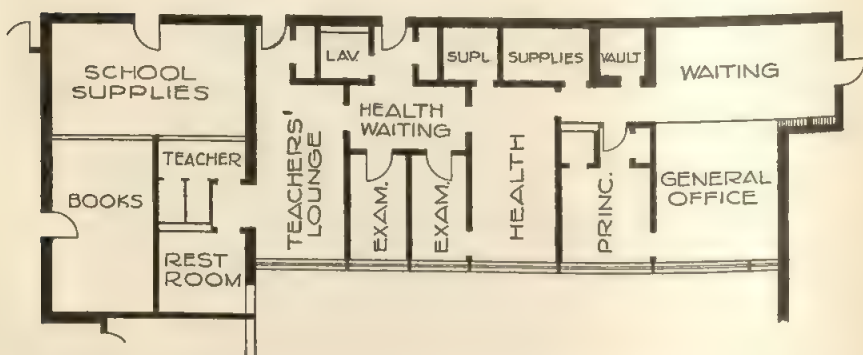


FIG. 35: Administrative spaces in the Lloyd H. Bugbee Elementary School, West Hartford, Conn. Courtesy of *Nation's Schools* and Edmund H. Thorne, Superintendent of Schools, West Hartford, Conn.

for books and supplies (Fig. 35) are near the general offices.¹¹ The Philadelphia elementary-school offices (Fig. 36) are designed to serve a two-story, central corridor building with a 1000-pupil capacity. In addition to the features shown in the drawing, there is a classroom-sized cot room

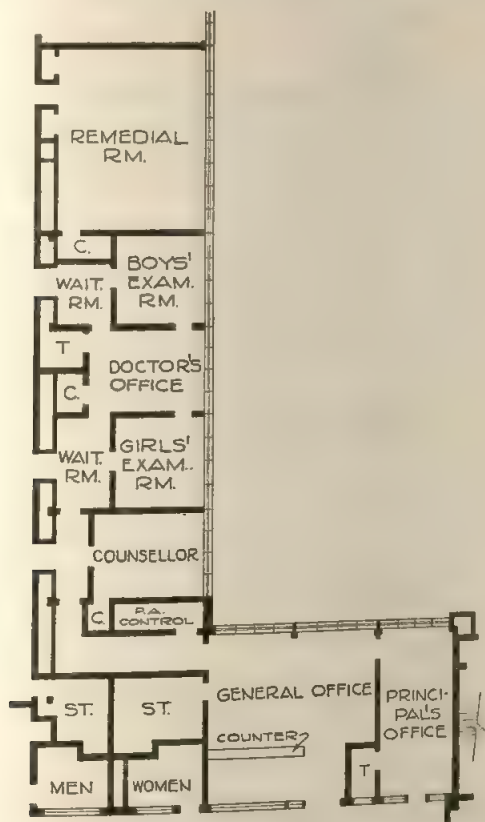


FIG. 36: Administrative spaces in a Philadelphia two-story elementary school with a 1000-pupil capacity. Courtesy of *American School Board Journal* and Howell Lewis Shay, architect.

between the two kindergarten rooms and a teachers' lounge in each classroom wing on each floor.¹² The Pashley Elementary School in Ballston Lake, New York, is a two-story, 15-classroom building on a 30-acre site (Fig. 37). In this school the library is adjacent to the health suite.¹³

¹¹ Edmund H. Thorne, "Elementary School Combines Beauty and Function," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 48 (October, 1951), pp. 56-59.

¹² "For Educational and Community Service—Foresight in Planning Philadelphia School," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 119 (November, 1949), pp. 44-45.

¹³ Charles F. Wilde, "Old Centralization Adds New Unit," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 124 (March, 1952), pp. 49-52.

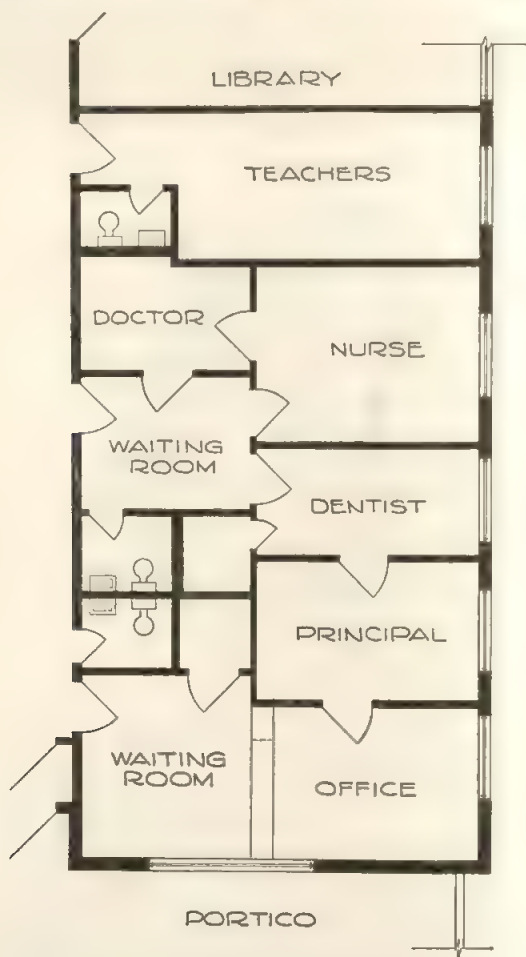


FIG. 37: Administrative spaces in the Pashley Elementary School, Ballston Lake, N. Y. Courtesy of *American School Board Journal* and J. M. Ryder, architect.

THE SERVICES OF THE GENERAL SCHOOL OFFICE

The general school office should be viewed as a service center. The space which comprises the office quarters, as well as the equipment and the office personnel, are there for but one reason, to render services to the on-going program of the school. The chief functions served by the school office are: (1) as a focal point of relations with the school system, (2) as the hub of pupil and teacher personnel services, (3) as a conference room, (4) as the focus of contacts with parents and other visitors, (5) as a workroom for the principal, (6) as a center for the professional activities of the faculty, (7) as a center for the management and super-

vision of textbooks and supplies, (8) as a center for the preparation and housing of records, and (9) as a clearing-house for the many details encountered in the operation of the school.

RELATIONS WITH THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

The administrative office bears a strategic relationship to the entire school and its activities. It is through the principal as a line-officer that a school makes its contacts with the superintendent and the central administration. Through reports, bulletins, visits, and interviews the central administrative staff obtains the information necessary for guidance in formulating system-wide policies which in turn are administered through the principals and supervisors in the local schools. Hence teachers look toward the principal as the executive intermediary, or line-officer in authority in their building, and look upon the principal's office as the headquarters through which they make contact with city administrative and educational policies.

It is through the school office as a focal point in relations with the school system that teachers receive bulletins, courses of study, letters, and announcements which keep them informed of happenings in the other schools of the city, consolidated district, or rural area of a county. Although small schools in rural areas do not have a separate space set aside for office purposes, some provision should be made for the centralization and coordination of each school's relationships with the larger administrative unit.

THE HUB OF PERSONNEL SERVICES

In Chapters 9, 11, and 12 extended treatments were presented on the many phases of pupil personnel services, including provisions for exceptional children. Many of the more recently built elementary schools have the health suite located near the school office or planned as a part of the office layout. Questions pertaining to the classification and promotion of pupils, or the assignment of pupils to special classes, cases to be called for special medical, dental, or psychological examination or to receive field service by the nurse, the visiting teacher, or the attendance officer are channeled through the school office as a central clearing-house. There must be a place in the school wherein private conferences can be engaged in by members of the professional staff, either among themselves or with pupils, parents, or representatives of other interested agencies. There must also be a space wherein direct services can be rendered to pupils, as in the administration of a medical examination or first-aid treatment. It is desirable that appropriate records and data be conveniently at hand when these types of problems are dealt with. This interrelated variety of contacts

and services for children usually localizes in the school office and thus causes the school office to serve as the hub of pupil personnel services.

Services to teachers are almost as numerous as services to pupils. As a protection to teachers and the board of education, many school systems request teachers to sign in and sign out at the beginning and close of each school day. Mail, memoranda, and supplies are placed regularly in the individual pigeon-holes provided for teachers in the office. Records of sick-leave or short-term professional leave usually originate in the individual school office. Secretarial service for teachers is handled by or through the general school office. Each principal could probably add a dozen or more specific ways in which the school office serves teachers.

THE OFFICE AS A CONFERENCE ROOM

Every well-arranged school office should provide a place where conferences of many kinds can be held without interruption. There is nothing more dissatisfying and annoying than to try to engage in a conference in the midst of ringing telephones and the interruptions caused by many other persons dashing in and out with errands and brief questions. There are many occasions when the principal or some teacher may wish to hold a private conference with a pupil, a parent, or a visitor. There are also times when committees of teachers or parents wish to hold a conference, or the principal may wish to confer with one or more teachers. One service which the school office should render is to provide a place where conferences of many kinds can be held under favorable conditions.

CONTACTS WITH PARENTS AND OTHER VISITORS

The school office serves as the reception center for all visitors coming to the school, including parents. In every school of any size there needs to be a place to which the visitor may come upon arrival at the building to obtain information and instructions as to the time and place where he may contact the particular individual he came to see. Many of the visitors will come to see only the principal, but even in such cases the office designates the place to which one goes to inquire about the principal, and the office itself serves as a reception center.

As a reception center for visitors the school office has important functions to discharge. Its location should be easily accessible to the main entrance to the building. Its location should be easily determined by a clearly visible sign or signs directing the visitor to the proper place in the building. The office itself, through its arrangement, equipment, and acoustics, should give the visitor the impression that he is welcome and that

the school was hoping to have visitors as evidenced by the space and the seats that have been provided. Above all, the secretary or student assistant in the outer office should never be too busily engaged to acknowledge the visitor's entrance immediately, even if nothing more is said than to ask the visitor to wait a few minutes until the secretary may relieve her hands of a jar of paste or an armful of books. It is very annoying to a visitor (most of whom feel they are in a hurry and that their business is urgent) to stand several minutes without recognition while a secretary finishes typing a letter or cranking a mimeograph.

Telephone technique does much to give tone and quality to the contacts outsiders make with the school through the school office. Telephone companies and business houses that are on their toes insist that their employees engage in a specific training course before they are permitted to answer a company telephone. If shops and stores were as careless as some schools in the way telephone calls are answered, their business would soon dwindle to the vanishing point. From the standpoint of public relations, the contacts the school makes with parents and others in the community via the telephone constitute significant relations. Schools could well afford to give all persons who are going to answer telephones, including the principal and the teachers, some training in telephone technique. The school office not only serves as the reception center for visitors but has much to do with the quality of the contacts people have with the school.

WORKROOM FOR THE PRINCIPAL

The school office is really the home room of the principal. It is his point of anchorage in the school and, as such, the office should serve as the workroom for the principal. Most office arrangements provide an inner private room for the principal. This room is equipped with desk and chair, telephone, bookcases, files, and such other equipment as is necessary to give efficiency to the special work of the principal. Usually the principal's private workroom is equipped with a few chairs for small conferences. Such conference arrangements should be in addition to the general conference room previously mentioned.

The principal's private workroom is so closely associated with the activities of the office as a whole that it is difficult to segregate the two. The atmosphere of a well-administered office is cordial and makes teachers, pupils, and patrons feel, not only that they are welcome, but that an open invitation is always extended for them to bring their problems for discussion with the principal. On the other hand, the office should manifest a businesslike atmosphere so that teachers, pupils, and patrons realize that the office is a place of business, a place where people have work to do and have no time for idle gossip or petty details. Unless this sentiment

prevails, much valuable time is wasted by the principal and the staff, and the routine duties of the office are constantly interrupted.

To assist teachers and others with their problems and to make them feel welcome in the office, and yet to have these conferences dispatched without disrupting office efficiency, principals have found it very helpful to designate certain office hours during which the principal plans to interview patrons and pupils or to hold conferences with teachers. Clerical assistants may be notified of the hours which the principal sets aside for these specific purposes and thus be enabled to arrange appointments for those periods. Although emergency situations should always be met at the opportune time, the schedule suggested above will do much to economize the time and energy of the principal and the office help. Usually principals experience difficulties when they first attempt to systematize conference periods, but persistent efforts will be well repaid in the long run. Teachers will learn that their time is saved if they plan to see the principal during the hour that he has scheduled for conferences. Teachers should not be permitted to send pupils to the office indiscriminately at any or all times, or to send them without written instructions which give details regarding the nature and the extent of misbehavior and the particular reason why discipline should be administered from the office rather than by herself. Requests for materials and other details which must be handled through the office can be planned by teachers so that the work of the office may experience a minimum of interruption. Likewise, messages and materials which are sent from the office to the classrooms should be planned so as to cause the least amount of interruption of classroom activity. If teachers are requested to visit the office periodically once or twice a day, the mail boxes conveniently placed in the outer office may be used for the distribution of bulletins and materials. Also, teachers, pupils, and patrons may be encouraged to present their requests and inquiries to the clerk who has charge of particular duties and thus economize the time of the principal as well as their own.

The reader should not gain the impression from the above statements that the rest of the school exists for the sake of efficient office administration. Basic to all considerations and principles for office administration is the fact that the office exists primarily for the services it can render to the educational activities of the school. There are certain services, however, which can be rendered more economically and more effectively if they are centralized in one place. Some of these have been assembled in, and administered through, the principal's office. In order that maximum service and economy may result, it is essential that all concerned recognize the relationship of these services to the school program and respect the working conditions of the principal and his office staff. Tremendous inefficiency and waste can result, even in little things, if sound principles of administration are not recognized.

PROFESSIONAL CENTER FOR THE FACULTY

The school office should also serve as a professional center for the faculty. In Chapter 10 mention was made of the professional library for teachers. Previous paragraphs in this chapter have called attention to the need for a conference room in which groups of teachers could meet, the workroom for teachers, and the way in which the school office serves as the focus of relationships with the school system as a whole. All of these related fields or activities combine with the leadership functions and activities of the principal and supervisors to make the school office a kind of professional center for the teachers.

This function as a professional center for the faculty does not require space or equipment not already mentioned, but it does require a recognition of the fact that a school office, by the way in which professional relationships are handled, can become a symbol of professional inspiration and leadership. For the school office to achieve a professional halo it is necessary to visualize the component elements which go together to make it up, and to coordinate the various facilities and activities to that end.

MANAGEMENT OF TEXTBOOKS AND SUPPLIES

Another service rendered through the school office is the management of textbooks and supplies. In the majority of school systems, at least the larger ones, instructional materials such as textbooks, library books, maps, globes, paper of all kinds, and other consumable supplies are selected from the list approved by the board of education and are secured from the central storehouse by requisition by the principal. Although, as members of various committees, the principal and teachers may have definite and direct responsibilities regarding the preparation and revision of standardized stock supply lists, the attention of the reader is directed here only to the problems associated with the administration of textbooks and supplies within a single school. Usually each building has some stockroom or storage space in which books and supplies may be housed temporarily and from which they may be circulated as needed.

The principal of each building must decide on the basis of budgeted funds and local needs which books are to be made available for each classroom and each group of children. When the books are received they should be assembled in a central bookroom. If the general storeroom which is a part of the office suite is large enough, this may be used. A complete textbook record for each text will be maintained in the principal's office. As books are distributed to teachers, the office keeps a complete record of each teacher's account with the bookroom. The teacher proceeds to distribute the textbooks to her class and is held accountable for the books loaned to her pupils. Each pupil may sign for the books received, a dupli-

cate copy of the receipted form being sent to the parent. The original forms signed by the pupil may be filed in the office by grade. New and transferred pupils may receive their books or clear their records directly through the office. At the close of the year the pupil records are given to the teacher to be checked. Adequate adjustments must be made for defacement, loss, or destruction by individual pupils. The books are then returned to the storeroom, where they are inspected and inventoried, and the teacher's accounting with the office is balanced. Arrangements are then made for the repair of those books which can be repaired for extended use, while replacements are made for those that are worn beyond repair. The essential feature of the plan described above is that it provides a continuous and accurate inventory of textbooks which is essential for annual-report purposes and for accurate and economical financial administration.

Instructional and janitorial supplies are usually obtained from the central storehouse by requisition of articles from the standardized stock-supply list and are delivered periodically to the schools. It is considered the best policy to have all requisitions for supplies prepared by the principal rather than to have various groups of school employees send their own requisitions direct to the central storehouse. Within each building the supplies should be received and accounted for in the general storeroom. They are then distributed to teachers on the basis of such standards for use as have been adopted by the school system and as requested by teachers on special "teacher requisition forms." It is desirable to have classrooms operate on a monthly or biweekly supply basis. Requisitions can thus be received at the principal's office at regular intervals, and the office clerk can plan her work so that no time will be wasted in filling the teachers' requests. Emergency calls for materials from the storeroom should be minimized as far as possible. The office should maintain an accurate account with each teacher for the materials used. The principal may check classrooms periodically to note the status of classroom supplies. Teachers may also be notified periodically of the amounts used as compared to budgetary allowances to insure an even and equitable distribution of materials. The materials in the storeroom should be arranged to permit efficient distribution and at the same time provide a continuous inventory of stock. In this way new materials may be ordered from the central storehouse to arrive at the school before the old stock is entirely depleted.

The management of the storeroom itself creates many nice problems for the principal. If the office is provided with clerical assistance, the distribution and collection of textbooks and supplies must be planned so that the time of clerical help may be economized and still result in efficient service. If no clerical assistance is available, it is essential that storeroom management be organized in a way which will not convert the principal into a clerk to effect seeming economy. Yet it is equally important that an accurate accounting be made of stores at all times. Much waste and inequi-

table distribution of materials among teachers can result if books and supplies are carelessly handled. The storeroom should provide a continuous, accurate inventory of supplies so that periodic reports to the central office can be made with ease and economy of time. Surpluses in classrooms at the end of the year should be returned to the storeroom and an accurate inventory submitted to the central storehouse.

RECORDS AND REPORTS

The school office should render three major services with respect to records and reports, namely, the preparation of records and reports, distribution and accessibility for use, and custodial care under fireproof conditions. Much of the work in the making of all kinds of records is clerical in nature: names and addresses need to be copied, entries recorded, totals determined, and so forth. Most of the routine associated with record-keeping and report-making should be delegated to the clerical staff, and the school office should be the place where the work is done. The importance of relieving teachers from clerical routine cannot be overemphasized at this time when so many school systems still insist upon not assigning secretaries to elementary schools.

Record-keeping is highly important, but it is equally important to keep the kinds of records which have significance for the educational program. Records, no matter how good they are, cannot have significance for the educational program unless they are accessible and are made available to the persons who should be studying and using the data. This means that school records must be accessible and distributable to teachers, nurses, physicians, visiting teacher, attendance officer, principal and others whose work and judgments should be determined in the light of facts. The organization for record-keeping and record-using should make possible a widely distributed use of records. The school office should render this "service use" of records.

From a legal as well as an educational use standpoint, records are very important. Permanent records should be carefully safeguarded against fire and other destructive forces. Ideally each school should have a fireproof method for the storage of permanent records. When fireproof vaults are not available, fireproof files should be used. This minimum standard of a fireproof file should be maintained even in one-teacher schools.

Each school system may desire to develop its own system of personnel records to fit local needs. A number of well-planned record systems are available in published form and may be adopted in whole or in part. Whether a series is developed locally or whether a published series is adopted, those in authority should be well versed in the criteria on the basis of which one may judge the value of record forms. Any good record system should be cumulative and compact and should, as far as possible,

reduce the repetition of items. The forms should be durable; the cumulative permanent record should eliminate the fine details. There should be a definite relationship between the forms of the system so that one helps to keep the others up to date; the data should be readily available to the teacher; the system should make record-keeping easy; it should guard against the loss of data; the system should make the preparation of reports as easy and as automatic as possible; it should also make it possible to locate children quickly and to trace children with ease over a period of years; it should provide a list of the pupils who entered a given grade in a given year; and the system should be simple, consisting of three or four fundamental forms.

CLEARING-HOUSE FOR DETAILS OF SCHOOL OPERATION

In every school there are numerous details that arise each day. A school bus may arrive 30 minutes late. An unexpected guest may suggest a hurriedly called school assembly. Plans for an excursion by a fourth-grade group may need some final checking. An emergency in someone's home may necessitate notifying a certain pupil and making arrangements for his early departure. A child has lost his purse. A new pupil arrives at school. These and other incidental events happen almost every week in many schools. The school office serves as clearing-house for the many details of school operation.

For those events which occur with reasonable frequency definite policies and procedures may be established so that handling of them may proceed with dispatch. Other incidents and problems occur infrequently and often unexpectedly, so that judgments on policy and procedure must be made at the time. In any event, it is desirable to have some central place in the school where matters of this kind can be cleared. The school office should serve in this capacity.

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THE MID-CENTURY PERIOD, beginning in the 1940's, will probably go down in history as the tradition-shattering era in the designing of elementary schools in the United States. The historic pattern of a two-story building with full basement, located on a small site in crowded quarters, and containing little more than "standard" classrooms 20' x 30' is disappearing with amazing rapidity. Of the 2056 elementary schools built in 1949, many were designed with little creative planning and little variation from the buildings constructed in the 1920's and 1930's, but the number designed with emphasis on today's needs and making use of today's know-how had increased markedly.¹ In a similar review of the 2938 elementary schools built during 1950, Cocking observed that even the most superficial examination disclosed many important changes in buildings constructed in 1950 as compared to those built only a decade ago.² By 1951 functional designing and deviation from conventional patterns were prominent among the 3012 elementary schools built during that year.³ Many of the innovations applied at mid-century were projected during the late 1930's and early 1940's, but they did not achieve widespread adoption until the large building programs got under way after the close of World War II.

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF NEW SCHOOLS

Word pictures, and even photographs, are very inadequate means of conveying to the reader the real beauty, the inviting atmosphere, the spacious comfort, and the functional usefulness of the better elementary schools that are being built. Architects, educators, and laymen have recog-

¹ Walter D. Cocking, "Educational Building in 1949," *American School and University*, Vol. 22 (New York, American School Publishing Corporation, 1950), pp. 41-56.

² Walter D. Cocking, "Educational Building in 1950," *American School and University*, Vol. 23 (New York, American School Publishing Corporation, 1951), pp. 53-64.

³ Walter D. Cocking, "Educational Building in 1951," *American School and University*, Vol. 24 (New York, American School Publishing Corporation, 1952), pp. 65-76.

nized that school buildings are instructional equipment and, as such, they must be planned to implement the educational objectives and philosophy of the community.⁴ There is also the realization that all environment educates, and that the character of school buildings and grounds can be important elements in the child's education.⁵ Schoolhouses are now being built from the inside out instead of from the outside in. In former years, the contour and appearance of the outside of the building were major



FIG. 38: Roslyn Elementary School Addition, Abington, Pa. This school has parabolic classrooms; the entire outer wall above the 30-inch sill in each classroom is used for window space, the lower half being clear glass in aluminum sash, while the upper portion is directional glass block. Courtesy of *American School Board Journal* and Henry F. Daum, secretary, Board of Directors, Abington Township Schools.

concerns; rooms and service areas were then adjusted to the available floor areas. Now, decisions are made first about what is to happen inside the building, and the areas and equipment needed for these activities; these requirements are then translated into the over-all building design. The ex-

⁴ R. T. Gregg, "Steps in Planning School Building Programs," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 116 (February, 1948), pp. 23-25.

⁵ Wendell W. Wright, "Welcoming Address," *Indiana and Midwest School Building Planning Conference: Proceedings*, Bulletin No. 5 of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. 24 (September, 1948), p. 7.

terior contour and appearance *result from* planning for educational purposes. Much of the shift in the approach to designing the building has resulted from cooperative planning in which teachers, pupils, parents, school-board members, architects, and school administrators have participated. Such cooperative planning had become rather common by 1950.



FIG. 39: Interior view in parabolic classroom as found in Roslyn Elementary School Addition, Abington, Pa. Courtesy of Henry F. Daum, School District of Abington Township.

Yesterday's monumental multi-storied buildings with full basements have lost favor. Seventy per cent of the new schools constructed in 1949 were of the one-story type; by 1951, 74 per cent were one-storied. Basements were placed in only 15 per cent of the new schools. School sites are now much larger; in 1951 the average site for new elementary schools contained from 10 to 15 acres of usable land. Larger sites have permitted the development of modified campus plans, with many innovations in building style (Figs. 38, 39, 40, and 41), attractive landscaping, walks, driveways, parking areas, garden plots, wooded areas, and differentiated play areas for younger and older pupils.

In new schools prime consideration is being given to making them livable. Lawrence B. Perkins, a noted school architect in Chicago, says that today's schools must meet adequate physical standards; more important,

however, is the need for livability—roomy, gay, homey.⁶ The need for space is obvious. Children learn by doing; they are active. The classroom must permit a variety of activities, from reading and writing to rest periods, dramatic play, and creative art. Lighting, temperature control, ventilation, attractive colors for walls and ceilings, and acoustical treatment to soften noises are given careful attention in new schools. Classrooms are large, with many built-in features and movable furniture to give space and flexibility for varied activities. More special rooms and more storage space characterize modern buildings.

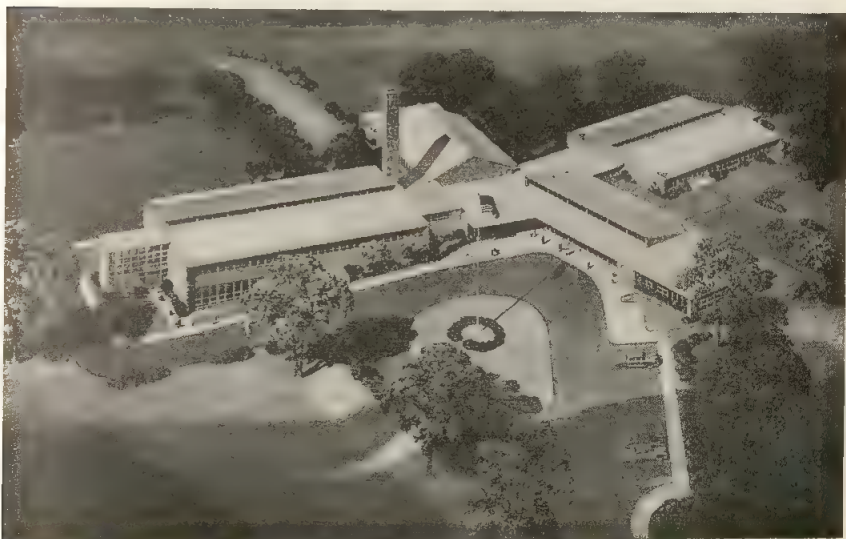


FIG. 40: Ralph R. Smith Elementary School, Hyde Park, N. Y. This school features separate wings for each age group, striking use of color (which the photograph does not show), reinforced concrete roof which influenced other parts of the design, and exploitation of the contours and native materials of the area. Courtesy of *The School Executive* and Perkins and Will, architects and engineers.

An increasing proportion of new elementary-school plants are designed to harmonize architecturally with the residential architecture in the neighborhoods in which the schools are located. The whole design of the school represents an effort to get away from the cold institutional atmosphere, and to substitute for it a homelike environment which will ease the child's transition from home to school.⁷ In some communities neighborhood harmonization and homey livability has been augmented by the development of primary schools, or home-school units, planned specifically for kinder-

⁶ Lawrence B. Perkins, "How To Design Livable Schools," *American School and University*, Vol. 24 (1952), pp. 147-152.

⁷ M. M. Steen, "In Architectural Planning—What About Tomorrow?" *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 114 (January, 1947), pp. 17-20.

garten and primary-grade pupils.⁸ There are some residential areas in which homes are not crowded onto small plots of ground, or in which the percentage of child population is low. A centrally located elementary school of 400 to 600 pupils would have a service area sufficiently large to create excessive walking distances for small children. The primary unit type of school can be used to bring more schools closer to more young children.



FIG. 41: Cole Branch Primary School, St. Louis, Mo. This is an architect's drawing of an eight-room addition to an existing school. Courtesy of *American School Board Journal* and F. Ray Leimkuehler, supervising architect, St. Louis Public Schools.

There is a definite trend toward planning elementary schools for a multiplicity of community uses. Maxwell and Carpenter reported 21 different adult groups which had used school facilities in Missouri in one year.⁹ Farm organizations, community clubs, welfare organizations, service clubs, and chambers of commerce were among the frequent users. Markham described a community room, equipped with a small kitchen, which was planned as part of an elementary school in Cleveland, Ohio.¹⁰ This particular room was an outgrowth of experience in other schools. In one other school, during one school year, the cafeteria furnished food service for 140 group meetings during various afternoon and evening hours. The

⁸ N. L. Engelhardt and Ethel M. Huggard, "The Home-School Unit," *School Executive*, Vol. 66 (July, 1947), pp. 31-32; N. L. Engelhardt, "The Home Schools of San Francisco," *American School and University*, Vol. 22 (1950), pp. 255-262.

⁹ J. S. Maxwell, and W. W. Carpenter, "Utilization of Special Spaces," *School Executive*, Vol. 68 (September, 1948), pp. 66-68.

¹⁰ Mary Markham, "Your Cafeteria and Your Community," *School Management*, Vol. 19 (January, 1950), p. 16.

school plant facilities in greatest demand by community groups are the cafeteria, the gymnasium, the auditorium, the art and handicraft laboratory, the library, and outdoor play areas. In many communities the schools and the city recreation department plan together so that the facilities of both public agencies are available for a broad array of educational and recreational uses by children, youth, and adults.

WHAT SIZE SCHOOL?

Everyone who is familiar with the practical aspects of school administration knows that there are many factors which affect the number of pupils who in a given year will attend a certain elementary school. Several of these factors are the result of careful planning, but many of them defy and upset the most carefully laid plans. A new industry may be developed in the neighborhood and bring with it many new families, new homes, and new subdivisions. Or, the reverse may happen; shifting employment opportunities may cause a decrease in population, or a normally aging neighborhood may bring a decrease in child population. The unpredictable elements in year by year enrollments cause unplanned changes in class size, unexpected numbers of pupils at given grade levels, and unexpected increases or decreases in total enrollment. School management must be sufficiently flexible to make the best possible adjustments to unplanned-for situations.

In spite of the flexibility which school administration must maintain, many emergencies can be avoided by careful planning. Decisions must be made with reference to the inclusion of nursery school and kindergarten as part of the elementary-school program, whether Grade 5, 6, 7, or 8 shall be the terminal grade in the elementary school, the optimum and maximum size of class, whether neighborhood primary schools shall be included in the basic pattern, and what the optimum size of each elementary school should be. Decisions on these and related matters are basic to a determination of the staff and organization for administration and supervision, the organization for instruction, the selection and purchase of school sites, the designing of school buildings, and the wisest utilization of older buildings in areas with a decreasing child population.

One issue that is basic to all of the aforementioned elements of planning is "What is the optimum-sized elementary school?" In spite of the importance of this question, research is practically devoid of any evidence (or even a pointed attack on the problem) that would be helpful in deriving an answer. The best that can be done is to raise the issues involved, and to report the trend of thought derived from experience. The question of optimum school size may be approached from at least three angles; the learning environment for pupils, administration and supervision, and school plant facilities.

When does an elementary school get too large or too small for the best interests of children? Accessibility is one consideration. A school should be within convenient walking distance of the homes of all pupils. Authorities differ somewhat, but all agree that the radius of the attendance zone should not exceed three-fourths of a mile; many prefer this radius not to exceed one-half mile. A school should be large enough to permit the formation of class sections and age groupings that will create the best learning situation. Classes which are too small tend to lack the motivation and inter-pupil stimulation that comes from a larger group. Classes should be small enough so teachers may know each pupil thoroughly and have an effective working relationship with each home. As yet research does not give much guidance regarding the optimum range of class size, but authorities are fairly well agreed that kindergarten classes should range from 15 to 22 pupils, classes in primary grades should range from 18 to 25 pupils, and classes in intermediate grades should range from 18 to 25 or 28. Age and grade lines may be considered reasonably flexible. With appropriate provisions for meeting individual differences, children differing in age by three or four years may be served in the same class. Some writers urge a stricter age grouping, whereas others extol the advantages of wider age ranges in each class. An eight-grade, one-teacher school with 10 to 15 pupils, some in each grade, is probably too small; there are not enough pupils in any one age bracket, even if the latter is defined rather broadly, to permit effective participation in many of the activities that would be available to pupils in a larger school. Many of the important games in physical education cannot be played when only a handful of pupils is present. The same could be said about auditorium, dramatic, musical, and hobby activities. One-teacher and two-teacher schools have some advantages over large schools, but the small school places numerous restrictions upon the scope of children's educative experiences. A school is not necessarily good because it is small.

Schools may also be too large. In a large school it is more difficult for children to acquire a real school spirit based upon pupil contact with all parts of the school plant and upon personal acquaintance with all or most other pupils and teachers. In a very large school the zone of operations of a given child has to be restricted to well defined portions of the building and the grounds; otherwise there would be serious conflicts and traffic problems. Also, in a large school each child knows only a fraction of the other pupils and teachers. The child contacts only a portion of the school, and hence it is difficult for him to acquire a feeling for the whole school. Large schools inevitably place many restrictions on pupil learning. Schedules tend to become more rigid. It is more difficult to have access to specialized facilities; more rigid rationing of special facilities must be practiced. Excursions and other out-of-class activities are more difficult to arrange and hence fewer in number. More time is spent standing in line

to use toilets, drinking fountains, the lunchroom, and so on. The larger the building the greater is the need for regulations of all kinds, especially those pertaining to traffic in and around the building. In large schools the services of the library may be less accessible to pupils and teachers.

The organization for administration, supervision, and instruction hinges largely upon size of school. What is to be the supervisory role of the principal? Is he to be a full-time supervising principal, a half-time teaching principal, or a head teacher with a full teaching schedule? Size of school has usually been one factor in answering that question. How many teachers can a principal supervise effectively if he has half-time or full-time available for administrative and supervisory activities? When is a faculty too large or too small to be an effective working group? Experience with various discussion and work groups indicates that from 8 to 15 or 18 persons can work together more effectively than larger groups. When a faculty numbers more than 20 persons, effective participation tends to wane.

If each teacher is to have at least one period per day for planning, preparation of materials, case studies, parent conferences, and so forth, the school must have one or more extra teachers to fill in during the times that the regular classroom teachers have planning and conference periods. Usually this is the point at which schools use special teachers of music or art. In what grades is it permissible to have music and art taught by special teachers? How many regular classroom teachers must a school have before the school can qualify for an extra teacher? If the music period is 30 minutes in length and music is to be taught by a special teacher every day in Grades 3 through 6, one music teacher can serve about 10 classrooms in these grades. This means that the school should have at least 10 sections in Grades 3 through 6, or otherwise share a music teacher with another building. If the school's plan is to alternate the services of special teachers of art and music from day to day, a school would have to have 20 sections in Grades 3 through 6 in order to qualify for one special teacher of art and one special teacher of music. Similar calculations could be made on other types of schedules for music and art, or for a special teacher of physical education. The essential point is that the availability and effective use of special teachers and librarians depends heavily upon size of school.

Table 40 in Chapter 13 showed that only 47 per cent of 1410 schools with supervising principals had one or more full-time secretaries and only 4 per cent of 413 schools with teaching principals had full-time office help. Even schools with supervising principals had 600 or more enrollment before as many as 50 per cent of the schools had one or more full-time secretaries. In the 600-999 enrollment group only 63 per cent had one full-time secretary and only 4 per cent had more than one full-time person. In the 413 schools with teaching principals, only 6 per cent of those

with less than 600 enrollment had as much secretarial help as one full-time person. If secretarial service is essential to the effective operation of a school, what is the relationship between size of school and the assignment of adequate secretarial service? Must we have large schools in order to get adequate secretarial service, or must the whole concept of secretarial allocation be revamped to fit the size schools which now exist or the size schools we ought to have? Similar questions could be raised about custodial services. How large a building can one custodian serve? How many custodians do you require for a school of 6 classrooms, of 10 classrooms, of 30 classrooms? What sized schools make for the most efficient allocation of custodial services? Is it good practice to divide a custodian's time between two buildings?

The extent and quality of parent-school relations should be examined carefully before decisions are made on optimum size of an elementary school. If the elements of parent-school relations emphasized in Chapter 13 are important, with how large a parent group can a principal, or a faculty, work effectively? At what point does a school shift from a comfortable and intimate parent-teacher-child-school relationship to an impersonal institutionalized atmosphere? There is some evidence to show that a large school is viewed by pupils, parents, and teachers as an institution with only impersonal, factory-like qualities. Can adequate public support be expected if more and more schools become so large that they assume institutional characteristics? Is the larger size of high schools one reason for the decreased interest of parents and the decrease of intimacy between parents and teachers? These and other questions merit investigation before we jump headlong into mechanical formulas for determining the optimum size for elementary schools.

Research is very inadequate in sharpening the exact relationships between size of school and the facilities required for an adequate educational program. Can a community afford adequate facilities if only small schools are built? Should every school, regardless of size, have an auditorium, a gymnasium, a lunchroom, a centralized library, an art-handicraft laboratory, and facilities for community use? If specialized facilities are essential to a good educational program, should they not be available to all children regardless of the size school which they attend? What is the difference in per-pupil capital outlay costs for any one of the specialized facilities if the school is designed to house 300 pupils or 600 pupils? It seems likely that communities will not divest themselves of enough funds to build all of the desired facilities into each school if the schools are to be small units. Where the small neighborhood schools have been built, present practice leans toward the elimination of many of the facilities deemed essential to a good modern educational program. Will communities be forced to build larger schools if adequate facilities are to be available? How large

must a school be in order to justify the cost of the necessary specialized facilities? How small can a school get and still have all the facilities essential to a good program?

Due to sparsity of population, some schools must, of necessity, be small. The large majority of children, however, live in areas in which school boards have the opportunity for some discretion regarding the size of schools which are built. The discussion in the preceding paragraphs makes it clear that as yet research offers little guidance on the issue of "What size school?" Mackenzie says there is much logic and experience in favor of elementary schools of 350 children, including two sections of kindergarten and two groups in each of the first six grades.¹¹ The National Commission on School District Reorganization recommended that an elementary school consisting of kindergarten and Grades 1 to 6 should not have fewer than 175 pupils and seven teachers, and that a more desirable minimum was 300 or more pupils.¹² The American Association of School Administrators recommended that attendance areas be drawn so that each school will have a minimum of one teacher per grade in the elementary school and three teachers per grade in the secondary school.¹³ No nation-wide data are available on the size of existing elementary schools. In Chapter 1 data for 1948 were presented which showed that there were 75,096 one-teacher, 17,500 two-teacher, and 7000 three-teacher schools. In 1143 city school systems in 1948, the average enrollment per elementary school was 402; the range in average enrollment was from 246 in cities of 2500 to 4999 population to 570 in cities over 100,000 in population.¹⁴ In the 1947 study of the elementary-school principalship, the median enrollment in schools under supervising principals was 520 pupils; 29 per cent of schools had fewer than 400 pupils and 17 per cent had 800 or more pupils. In schools administered by teaching principals the median enrollment was 253 pupils; 85 per cent of these schools had fewer than 400 pupils.¹⁵ Present sizes of schools, as well as present recommendations on school size, may change considerably after thoroughgoing research has been applied to the problem.

¹¹ Gordon N. Mackenzie, in N. L. Engelhardt, N. L. Engelhardt, Jr., and Stanton Leggett, *Planning Elementary School Buildings* (New York, F. W. Dodge Corporation, 1953), p. 179.

¹² Howard A. Dawson and Floyd W. Reeves, *Your School District*, Report of the National Commission on School District Reorganization (Washington, Department of Rural Education, N.E.A., 1948), p. 81.

¹³ American Association of School Administrators, *American School Buildings*, Twenty-seventh Yearbook (Washington, the Association, 1949), p. 43.

¹⁴ *Trends in City-School Organization, 1938 to 1948*, "Research Bulletin, N.E.A., Vol. 27, No. 1 (February, 1949), p. 35.

¹⁵ *The Elementary-School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, Twenty-seventh Yearbook (Washington, Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A., 1948), p. 44.

THE SCHOOL SITE

Increasingly the school site is being viewed, along with the building, as a portion of the teaching facilities. In a sense, this viewpoint has always prevailed, but in the past much more thought was given to the site as a place to locate a building and less attention given to the fact that the site can provide as important resources for teaching as the building itself. It is only in recent years that the development of the site itself has brought forth the full realization of the potentiality of the school grounds in curriculum enrichment.

The trend toward curricularization of the school grounds has brought new visions regarding the kinds of activities for which the school site should provide. If adults as well as children are to use the school grounds, the usual small fenced-in plot is inadequate. Some writers have proposed that the most desirable sites for community schools should include from 25 to 100 acres. These larger plots should include areas planned as play fields, picnic grounds, natural theaters, parking spaces, water areas, nature crafts, garden, and farms.¹⁶ Most authorities are now agreed that large tracts of land are a necessary part of the setting for a school plant.¹⁷ The minimum size for an elementary-school site should be five acres plus one acre for each 100 pupils of ultimate enrollment; a school for 200 pupils should therefore have a site of at least seven acres of usable land. Adjacent to a park or recreation area is the ideal location for an elementary school.¹⁸

The school site should have enough level land to accommodate the building, play areas, and service installations; wooded areas and rolling terrain are sometimes suitable for nature trails, animal habitats, and other natural features. A long-range land-use plan should be prepared before specific structures are designed for any site. This site plan should indicate the proposed building and possible additions, permanent and temporary structures, contours, utility service lines, proposed walks, drives, parking areas, and proposed planting. The school building should be located far enough from roads to avoid traffic noises but close enough to highways to permit easy accessibility and to conserve the maximum of land area for playgrounds and other desired outdoor facilities. Adequately sized sites have sometimes lost their usefulness through unwise location of the building on the site.

¹⁶ N. L. Engelhardt and N. L. Engelhardt, Jr., *Planning the Community School* (New York, American Book Co., 1940), Ch. 12.

¹⁷ Elton R. deShaw, "Grounds," *School Executive*, Vol. 68 (January, 1949), pp. 84-86.

¹⁸ Ruth Abernathy and D. K. Brace, "Planning Education—Recreation Areas," *School Executive*, Vol. 67 (August, 1948), pp. 47-48; Lewis H. Brotherson, "School Playgrounds in a City Recreation Program," *School Executive*, Vol. 67 (August, 1948), p. 50.

The nature and extent of facilities for outdoor activities will be determined in part by curricular needs and in part by anticipated community uses. Present trend is to arrange for separate play areas for younger and for older pupils. Differentiated play areas permit specialized planning and equipment. Areas allocated to younger children can have sand boxes, jungle gyms and other climbing structures, paved areas for wheel toys, rope jumping, and open spaces for group games. Play areas for older children can be designed for the more mature group games. Except for horizontal bars and ladders, jungle gyms, sand boxes, and crawling tubes for younger children, the trend is away from elaborate playground equipment, much of which is hazardous and provides little exercise. Bats and balls of many kinds, jumping ropes, and other less expensive but fluid equipment make for a better physical education program.

Beautification of school grounds has been given greater emphasis as people have become more interested in landscape gardening and as educational leaders have recognized the aesthetic contributions which a beautiful school site can make to the community, and the people therein, as well as the education of children. In many cases the beautification of the school grounds has been undertaken by the pupils under the guidance of teachers and experts in landscaping. As a rule the surrounding countryside contains most of the plants, shrubs, and trees needed for a local project. Holway has identified the six most common objections people give to the beautification of school grounds and has shown the errors or false notions inherent in these objections.¹⁹ The same author has provided helpful suggestions on types of shrubs and trees.²⁰

CLASSROOMS AND THEIR EQUIPMENT

The past 15 years have witnessed a new era in the design of classrooms and their equipment. Architects and educators have studied the trends in curriculum and method.²¹ Out of such study has grown a genuine effort to produce classrooms which would facilitate a modern educational program in every possible way. Truly functional classroom designing has resulted. One group of authors made a careful analysis of the types of pupil activities found in modern instructional programs.²² For each activity the writers determined the space and equipment needs. These were then trans-

¹⁹ C. P. Holway, "Why Landscape the School Grounds?" *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 106 (January, 1943), pp. 27-28.

²⁰ C. P. Holway, "Planting the Schoolyard," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 106 (March and May, 1943), pp. 31-32, 39-41.

²¹ Helen K. Mackintosh, coordinator, *Schools at Work in 48 States*, Bulletin No. 13 (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1952); Harold D. Drummond, coordinator, *Promising Practices in Elementary Schools* (Atlanta, Ga., Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1952).

²² Engelhardt, Engelhardt, Jr., and Leggett, *op. cit.*

lated into classroom design specifications. The list of pupil activities included the following items: (a) growing plants, (b) cooking, (c) playing house, (d) using records, (e) writing and spelling, (f) art, (g) using hobbies and interest materials, (h) music, (i) re-creating community enterprises in the classroom, (j) long-term projects, (k) dancing, (l) sewing, (m) making models, (n) caring for animals and fish, (o) science, (p) collecting, (q) reading, (r) speech, (s) arithmetic, and (t) puppetry. The type of analysis which the authors made for each activity is illustrated by the following quotation which enumerates the requirements in caring for animals and fish:²³

TYPICAL LIVE THINGS FOUND IN CLASSROOMS

Hens (sometimes setting)	Fish
Birds	Turtles
Hamsters	Snakes
Rabbits	Cats
Guinea pigs	Bees
White mice	Tadpoles growing into frogs
Rats	Deodorized skunks
Alligators	

FACILITIES NEEDED

Cages	Some way of keeping animals, etc., over
Aquarium (must have source of heat)	week ends (meeting problems of cold
Terrarium	and feeding)
Feed	Sunlight
Water available	Clean-up facilities
Storage for feed, cages, etc. (when not in use)	Flat surface for location of cages, etc., where children can see
	Incubator—electrical connection

Increasing agreement on a basic educational and organizational concept has given tremendous impetus to the improvement of classroom design and equipment. The trend toward greater integration within the curricular offering, represented by the wider use of broadly integrated units, and the use of many and varied learning activities, has pressed for an organization for instruction under which one teacher works all day, or most of the day, with the same group of pupils. The single-teacher-per-class idea, the reduction of departmentalization, and changed ways of using special teachers are the organizational changes which have been the accompaniments of the curricular trend. These two trends, the curricular and the organizational, have brought forth a new term, the "self-contained classroom," which is now used to convey the combined thinking in curriculum, organization, and classroom design and equipment. The concept of the self-contained classroom was highlighted in the January, 1952, issue of *Nation's Schools*.²⁴ Different writers have used different terminology in

²³ *Ibid.*, p. 23. Quoted by permission of, and arrangement with, the publisher.

²⁴ G. Robert Koopman, "A Natural Pattern for Child Growth and Learning," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 49 (January, 1952), pp. 50-54; Patrick S. Fordell, "The Self-

describing the self-contained classroom. Basically, it is thought of as the school home of the child, a place which is homey, comfortable, and provides for practically all of the child's personal and learning needs. It is the place in which the child, along with his classmates, spends the large portion of the school day under the guidance of his teacher. The self-contained classroom is the physical environment which endeavors to give maximum flow to the educational ideas underlying the single-teacher-per-class concept of instructional organization.

The idea of the self-contained classroom, plus the development of multi-source daylight and improved use of artificial light and color, have permitted numerous innovations in the dimensions and shape of classrooms. In earlier years, when classroom lighting depended primarily upon natural light from windows, room width depended upon the height of windows; it was seldom possible to have a room over 24 feet wide. If rooms were to be made larger, they could only be made longer. With modern methods of lighting, a room can be almost any shape and size. The new possibilities in room design are reflected in the photographs shown earlier in this chapter and in various articles describing trends in school building planning.²⁵ Hexagonal, parabolic, square, and L-shaped classrooms are becoming more numerous as well as rectangular rooms whose widths range up to 30 feet (Figs. 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, and 50). Cocking's summary of the characteristics of 3012 elementary schools built during 1951 showed that the average classroom to house from 25 to 30 pupils contained approximately 1000 sq. ft., that the "squared" classroom was finding increasing favor, and that there was an increased emphasis upon the self-contained classroom.²⁶ The typical classroom built in 1951 contained nearly 400 more square feet of floor area than did the typical classroom of 1930.²⁷ Many elementary schools built during the past decade combine outdoor teaching areas with indoor classroom provisions. The outdoor classroom, or the outdoor area associated with each classroom, has become an accepted idea. Usually each classroom has a door leading directly to the out-of-doors, thus making outdoor teaching areas im-

Contained Classroom in Operation," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 49 (January, 1952), pp. 55-57; Russell E. Wilson, "Physical Environment Offers Room for Action, Movable Equipment, Psychological Comfort," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 49 (January, 1952), pp. 58-59; H. K. Bennett, "Making the Transition Requires Administrative Planning, Courage, and Patience," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 49 (January, 1952), pp. 60-65.

²⁵ "School Plant Trends," *The School Executive*, special issue of *American School and University*, Twenty-first Annual Edition (1949), pp. 111-160; Howard Eckel, "Features of Outstanding Classrooms," *American School and University*, Twenty-third Annual Edition (1951), pp. 143-149.

²⁶ Cocking, "Educational Building in 1951," *American School and University*, op. cit., pp. 65-76.

²⁷ S. G. Wiener, "The Changing Classroom," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 116 (January, 1948), p. 21; Charles Bursch, Charles D. Gibson, and Henry L. Wright, "Classroom Size," *School Executive*, Vol. 68 (January, 1949), pp. 58-59.

mediately accessible to a class group. In some instances the exterior of the building has been designed so as to make the outdoor area an almost integral part of the indoor area.²⁸

Attention to classroom acoustics has become common. Control of noise is of major importance in a classroom. Undue noise may come from outside the building from traffic and close-up play or work areas, from adjoining rooms and halls, from within the classroom, and from mechanical devices serving the classroom. Some type of noise barrier should be provided to prevent the use of outdoor classroom areas from disturbing nearby classes. Methods are now available for installing duct systems, pipes, and partitions between classrooms so that noises from these sources may be at a minimum. The use of acoustical materials for classroom ceilings and walls has done much to reduce noise interference from classroom activities. Tilting of ceilings and shifting the angle of partitions has also resulted in better sound-controlled rooms. Acoustical treatment of classrooms must be done with care; it is possible to reduce sound reverberation so that the room is acoustically dead. Cushioned floor coverings and acoustical ceilings in halls minimize noises from this source.

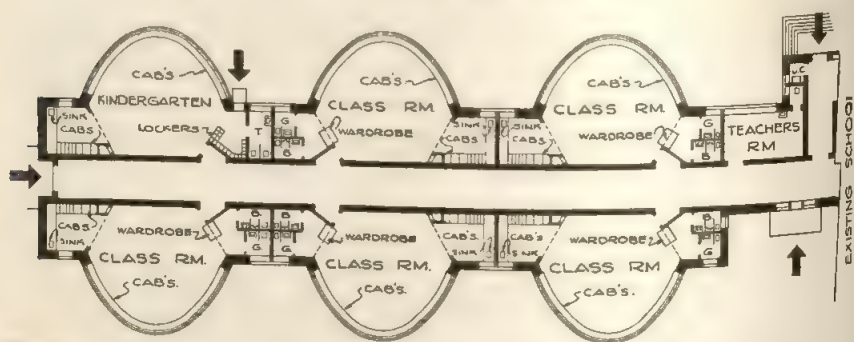


FIG. 42: A wing of six parabolic classrooms, as found in the Overlook Hills Elementary School, Abington, Pa. Courtesy of American School Board Journal and Henry F. Daum.

The use of attractive colors for interior classroom decoration is closely associated with provisions for lighting the room and the color and distribution of chalkboard areas.²⁹ Eckel's analysis of 49 outstanding elementary schools built in 1949 revealed that in 72 per cent of them green chalkboards had been used.³⁰ Usually the chalkboard area is confined to 12 to 18 feet on the front wall of the classroom. The departure from the use of

²⁸ R. U. Ricklefs and J. L. Reid, "The Fairfax School Addition," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 117 (September, 1948), pp. 41-43.

²⁹ M. Pleason, *Color Planning for School Interiors* (St. Paul, Minn., Division of Business Affairs, St. Paul Public Schools, 1948); J. S. Warren, "The Crusade for Color," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 110 (January, 1945), pp. 41-42.

³⁰ Eckel, *op. cit.*

the institutional "buff and tan" in the interior decoration of school buildings is relatively new, but once the idea of colorful interiors was accepted, the trend toward the use of attractive and pleasing colors was rapid; attractive colors are now used almost universally in redecorating old buildings as well as in finishing new ones. Davini points out that a good school decorating program takes into account all matters pertaining to the classroom: floor finishes, desk finishes, woodwork, pictures, picture frames,

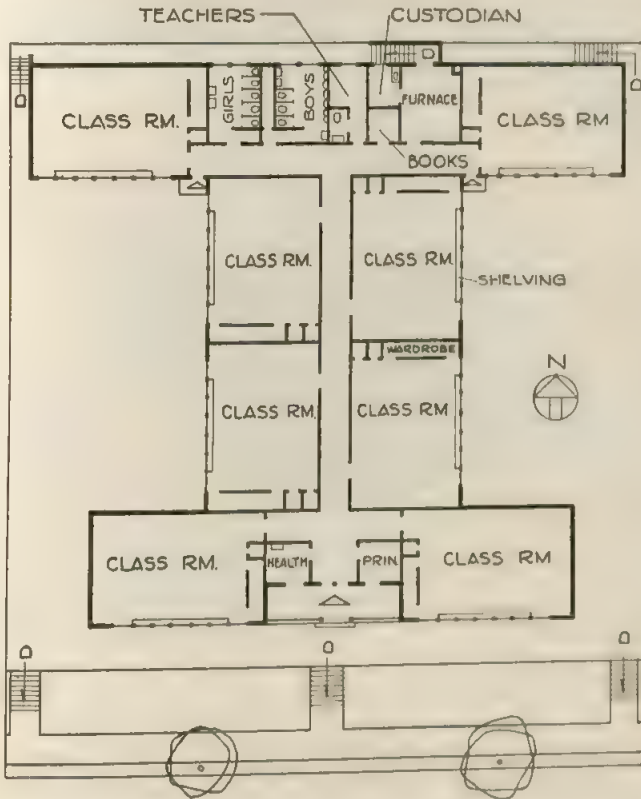


FIG. 43: Floor plan of the Cole Branch Primary School, St. Louis, Mo. Courtesy of *American School Board Journal* and F. Ray Leimkuehler, supervising architect, St. Louis Public Schools.

and chalkboard, with colors chosen in relationship to the visual comfort of those who inhabit the building.³¹ Colors vary greatly in their reflective value. The percentage of light reflected is known as the reflection factor. Reflection factors for some of the common colors are: white, 80-90; light gray, 45-60; cream, 51-70; brown, 11; dark red, 7; yellow, 69; light green,

³¹ William C. Davini, "Colors for School Interiors," *American School and University*, Vol. 24, *op. cit.*, pp. 359-362.

37-65; light blue, 45-63; blue, 11; and orchid, 62. Glare, whether direct or reflected, is possibly the greatest source of visual distress. Direct glare comes from natural daylight through windows and from unshielded artificial light. Reflected glare comes from glossy surfaces such as shiny desk tops, mirrors, chalkboards, glasstop tables, glass doors, and framed pictures. Classrooms should be devoid of glare.

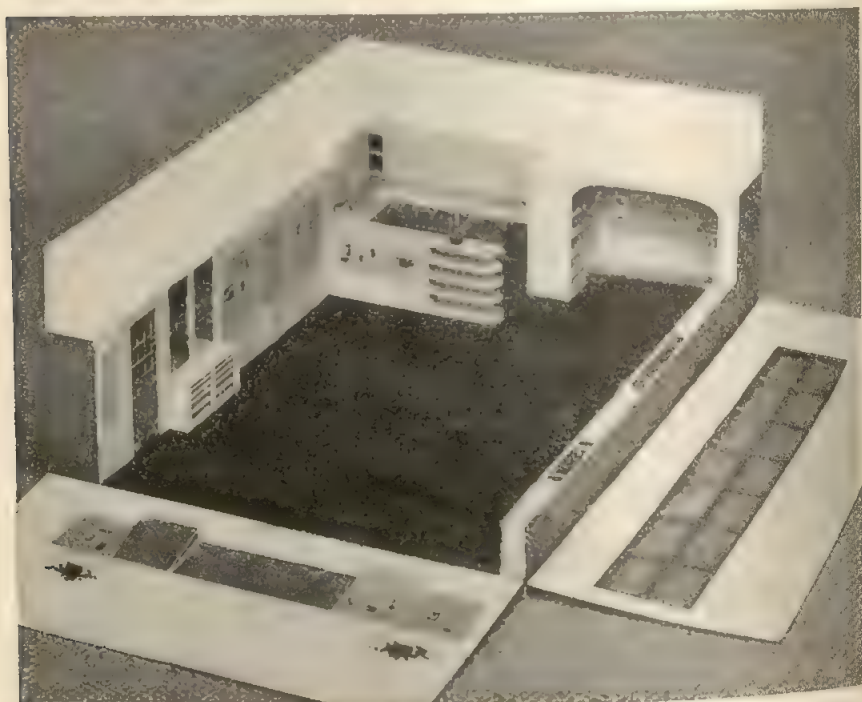


FIG. 44: Architect's model of a classroom as found in the West Reading Elementary School, Berwyn, Pa. Courtesy of American School Board Journal and J. Maurice Stratton, superintendent.

Birren pointed out that the functional use of color was first initiated in hospitals to control brightness and glare in operating rooms and to comfort patients in their rooms.³² Color can be used to improve visibility, to reduce fatigue and eyestrain, and to lend an emotional tone to rooms of various kinds. The causes of fatigue and eyestrain are glare, continual adjustment to areas of conflicting brightness, prolonged convergence on near tasks, and poor visibility. Color can contribute to the emotional climate of a room, hall, or stairway. In a physiological sense, bright light and pale colors tend to stimulate the body and to be conducive to muscular activity; suppressed colors minimize the environment as a source of distraction and therefore serve as an aid to visual and mental concentration.

³² Faber Birren, "Put Color to Work," *American School and University*, Vol. 24, *op. cit.*, pp. 355-358.

Entrance halls, corridors, cafeterias, and gymnasiums can use wall finishes in yellow, flesh or coral, pink, and ivory. Classrooms, on the other hand, are better if decorated in tones of green, blue-green, or gray. The latter group of muted colors have desirable reflectances between 50 and 60, lessen the surrounding glare, and are passive rather than active, thus permitting the mind and eyes to apply themselves without external competition.

Colors in schools should be chosen for their functional rather than their aesthetic value. Some schools are applying too much color and are using it incorrectly. Sharp color contrasts may put the eye through trying muscu-

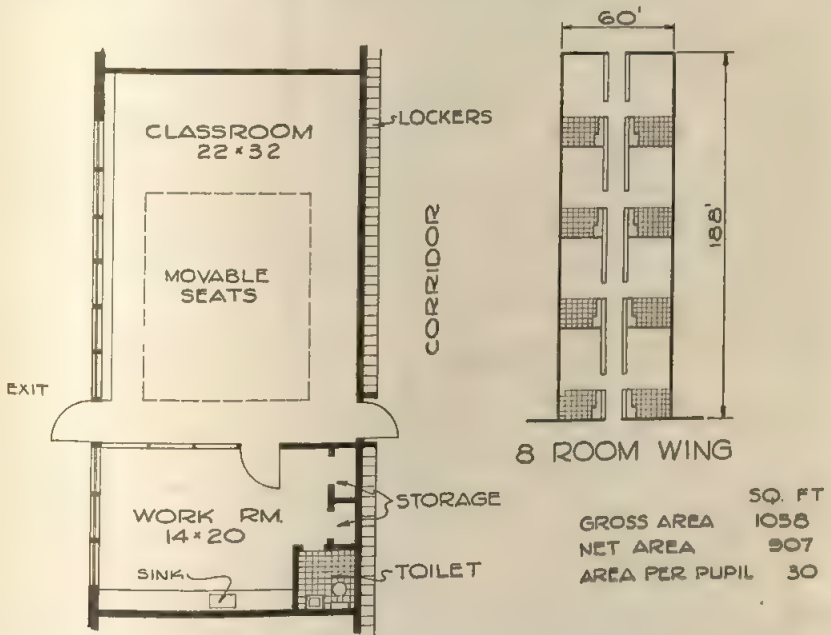


FIG. 45: Classrooms with work alcove, light coming from only one side. Courtesy of American School Board Journal and Sherwood, Mills, and Smith, architects, Stamford, Conn., and New York City.

lar gymnastics, tire the student, and contribute to nervousness. The use of too many different colors may increase painting costs and make re-decorating needlessly costly. Birren's comments on these points are worth noting. Good vision is a simple trinity of accommodation (focus of the eyes), convergence, and brightness. If brightness is on the walls rather than on the visual task, vision difficulty is encountered; the pupil of the eye may be unduly restricted and the "psychological pull" of the bright wall may prove distracting. The eye will struggle to focus to brightness within the visual field and thus be improperly focused for good vision of the less lighted books, papers, or equipment. Brightness ratios should lie

within about 5 to 1; ceilings with a reflection factor of 80 should not be combined with dark floors which reflect less than 5 per cent of the light which strikes them.

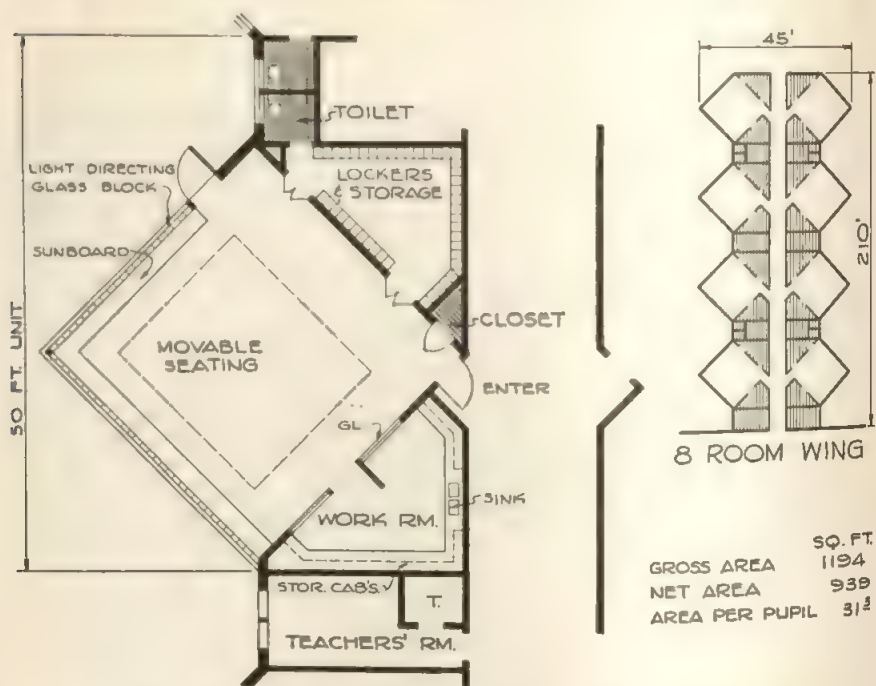


FIG. 46: Diagonal classroom with lighting from two sides. Courtesy of American School Board Journal and Sherwood, Mills, and Smith, architects, Stamford, Conn., and New York City.

Colors should be chosen so as to achieve appropriate brightness ratios and an appropriate amount of illumination, as well as attractive appearance. Almost without exception, ceilings in classrooms should be white, and all other areas and objects should be raised in brightness for a fairly uniform effect. The best tones for walls have a reflectance of not more than 50 to 60 per cent. Floors should reflect from 20 to 30 per cent, the actual range of unstained natural maple or oak. Equipment, desks, and tables should reflect from 25 to 40 per cent. A desk top with a reflection factor of 30 will serve as an effective "cushion" as the eye glances from the visual task toward the wall and ceiling or down at shadowed floors.

Tremendous progress has been made in classroom lighting. The earlier attack on poorly lighted classrooms was to increase the amount and distribution of light. The campaign emphasized increase in the number of foot-candles of light reaching the child's desk, and in securing at least a minimum satisfactory quantity of light to the side of the room opposite the windows. The inadequacy of the footcandle approach has been recog-

nized. Quantity of light is still important, but mere increase in quantity may make visual conditions worse as well as better. Thirty footcandles of light on the working surface (visual task) is now considered to be about the right amount in classrooms. Instead of merely talking about footcandles, we now hear about brightness-balance, luminous environment, and the coordinated classroom in which all of the factors which influence vision, fatigue, posture, and nervous strain are taken into consideration.³³

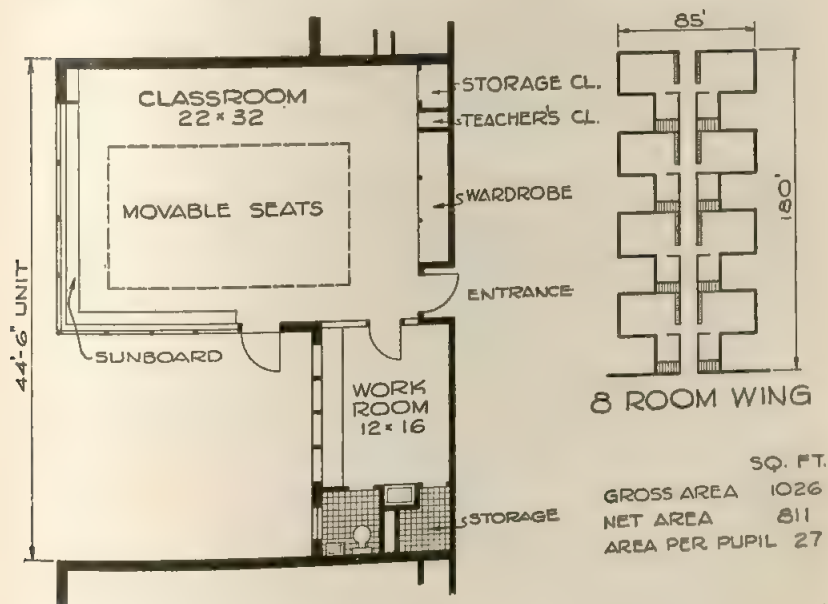


FIG. 47: End-on classroom with light from two sides. Courtesy of American School Board Journal and Sherwood, Mills, and Smith, architects, Stamford, Conn., and New York City.

Classroom lighting has a direct bearing on child growth and behavior. Children are likely to adjust rather spontaneously to improper quantity, quality, and source of light. Many of the peculiar positions children assume in their various activities result from adjustments to light. Continuous adjustments to improper light are related to nervous habits, fatigue, and undesirable aspects of posture. Whatever energy is consumed in adapting to improper light has its repercussions on nutrition and physical growth.

Moon and Spencer pointed out that the modern conception of room lighting is the design for a *luminous environment* in which natural and artificial sources of light, room colors, and reflectances of room surfaces and

³³ Darell B. Harmon, *The Coordinated Classroom* (Grand Rapids, Mich., American Seating Company, 1949).

furniture are equally important.³⁴ Sharp's analysis of the geometry of the visual field is helpful in understanding the relatedness of the different parts of a room and the objects therein as elements in the vision problem.³⁵ Whenever an individual wishes to see anything clearly, the object is focused upon the small central area of the retina, called the fovea. The geometric angle included within the lines of direct foveal vision is about two degrees. But while concentrating on the object within the narrow angle of direct vision, the eye is also receiving impressions from a very wide surrounding angle which extends approximately 85 degrees to each side and 50 degrees above and below the central visual axis. When a child's vision is directed upon a task on his desk, the surrounding visual area includes a space about 10 feet to each side and ahead of him. For a student seated at the rear

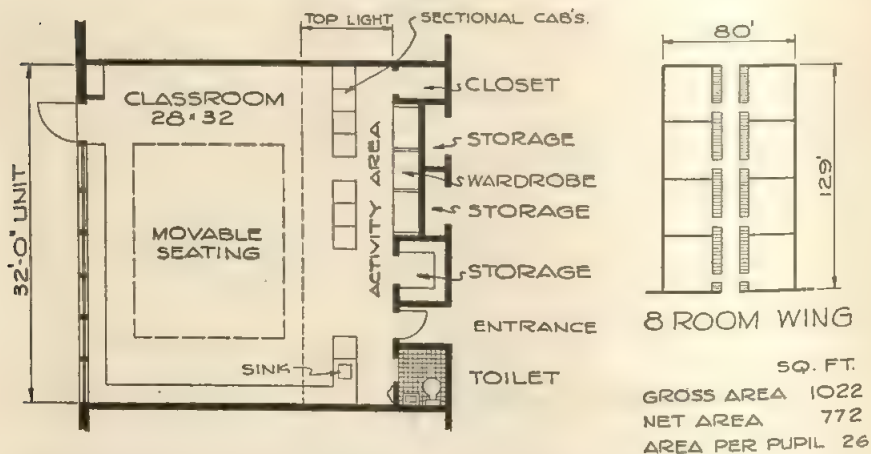


FIG. 48: Square classroom with clerestory top light and side light. Courtesy of American School Board Journal and Sherwood, Mills, and Smith, architects, Stamford, Conn., and New York City.

of a room whose gaze is directed to the chalkboard at the front of the room, almost two-thirds of all the room surfaces are within the visual field. While the central retina area is used for discrimination of detail and color, the peripheral area continues to be sensitive to brightness and motion. Both of them, however, work together, with the peripheral field complementing the central field. Any condition in the peripheral field which aids or hinders the work of the central area must be considered. This is why brightness ratios, brightness-balance, and elimination of sources of glare are so important.

³⁴ Parry Moon and Domina E. Spencer, *Lighting Design* (Cambridge, Mass., Addison-Wesley Press, 1948).

³⁵ Howard M. Sharp, "From Daylight to Darkness: Current Claims About School Lighting," *American School and University*, Vol. 23, *op. cit.*, pp. 185-190.

The brightness ratios recommended for schoolrooms by the Illuminating Engineering Society and the American Institute of Architects in 1948 are:³⁶

- a. Between the "central visual field" (the seeking task) and immediately adjacent surfaces, such as between task and desk top, with the task the brighter surface—1 to 1/3.
- b. Between the "central visual field" and the more remote darker surfaces in the "surrounding visual field," such as between task and floor—1 to 1/10.
- c. Between the "central visual field" and the more remote brighter surfaces in the "surrounding visual field," such as between task and ceiling—1 to 10.
- d. Between luminaires or windows and surfaces adjacent to them in the visual fields—20 to 1.

An example may help to explain these recommendations. In standard "a," if the amount of light reaching a child's desk is 30 footcandles and the printed book page has the customary 65 per cent reflectance and the desk top of natural maple has the customary 25 per cent reflectance, the printed page will reflect 19.5 foot-lamberts ($30 \times .65$) and the desk top will reflect 7.5 foot-lamberts ($30 \times .25$). The ratio between 19.5 and 7.5 is 1 to .38, or slightly more than the recommended 1 to 1/3.³⁷

The American Standard Practice for School Lighting presents the following *minimum* footcandle requirements for various locations in the school:

- a. Classrooms—on desks and chalkboards—30.
- b. Study halls, lecture rooms, art rooms, offices, libraries, shops, and laboratories—30.
- c. Classrooms for partially seeing pupils and those requiring lip reading—on desks and chalkboard—50.
- d. Drafting rooms, typing rooms, sewing rooms—50.
- e. Reception rooms, gymnasiums, swimming rooms—20.
- f. Auditoriums (not for study), cafeterias, locker rooms, washrooms, corridors, stairways—10.
- g. Open corridors and store rooms—5.

The progress which has been made in classroom lighting is the result of much research in lighting itself, the combination of color and light control, the combination of natural and artificial light, and innovations in the construction of walls, windows, and ceilings. Fenestration now extends to the ceiling to permit wider distribution of light to the far side of the room.

³⁶ "The American Standard Practice for School Lighting," *American School and University*, Vol. 21 (New York, American School Publishing Corporation, 1949), pp. 266-283.

³⁷ Russell C. Putnam, "The American Standard Practice for School Lighting—Its Preparation, Use, and Value," *American School and University*, Vol. 21, *op. cit.*, pp. 284-286.

Directional glass blocks are used to advantage in some window installations³⁸ and in clerestory designs.³⁹ Sloping ceilings, inside and outside louvers, and differently shaped classrooms are used in some instances to improve lighting conditions. The old-fashioned single bank of windows along one side of the room has been almost completely replaced with multi-source daylighting which makes it possible for the lighting engineer to cut down excessive source brightness by sky-shielding devices and at the same time retain most acceptable footcandle levels in the classroom.

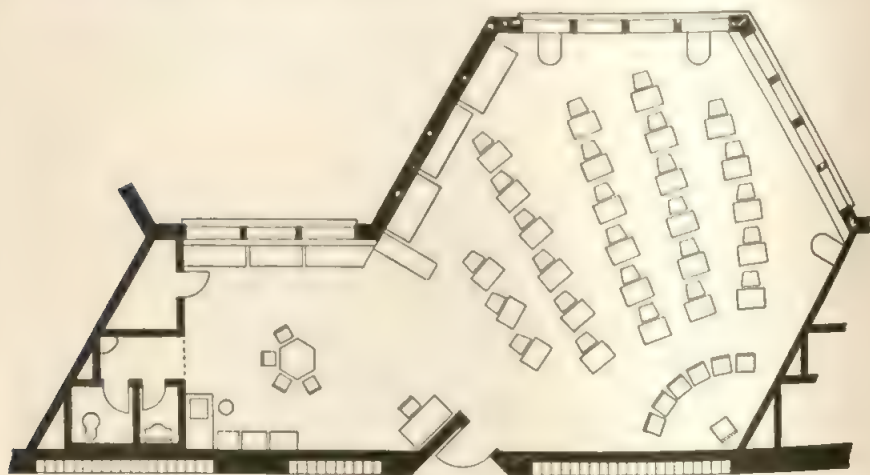


FIG. 49: Hexagonal classroom as used in the Stockton School addition, East Orange, N. J. Eye-sight and its protection was of prime concern in planning this addition. The hexagonal design permits light to be diffused from three angles. Prismatic glass blocks above movable clear glass windows provide greater light distribution, eliminate glare, and allow cross-lighting. Courtesy of *The School Executive* and John W. Kempson.

In spite of the progress which has been made in classroom lighting, Gibson and Sampson warn us not to become complacent about present accomplishments.⁴⁰ Many schools are not yet well lighted. Sun brightness control has not been achieved too well. Some school systems make the error of solving the lighting problem by prescribing fixed seating patterns. Any lighting design is poorly conceived if it depends upon a fixed seating arrangement. Today's educational programs require flexibility so that children may work in any position in any part of the classroom. A fixed seating arrangement is effective in theory only. The visual angles proposed are

³⁸ N. E. Viles, "The Effect of Directional Glass Block on Daytime Lighting in Classrooms," *American School and University*, Vol. 21, *op. cit.*, pp. 293-296.

³⁹ Herbert Voelcker, "Daylighting Classrooms by Clerestory," *American School and University*, Vol. 23, *op. cit.*, pp. 225-230.

⁴⁰ Charles D. Gibson and Foster K. Sampson, "School Lighting Progress to Date and Some Suggested Next Steps," *American School and University*, Vol. 23, *op. cit.*, pp. 173-184.

based upon the impossible assumption that a student never looks anywhere but straight ahead; as soon as the pupil turns his head even a little he encounters visual fields not calculated in the fixed seating pattern. Some schools spend money on new light fixtures when a careful paint job would be adequate. In an effort to achieve the ultra-modern in design, some architects have lowered window sills to, or almost to, the floor level. From the lighting standpoint, floor-level windows introduce a large source of light *below* the average work plane in the classroom, thus creating an uncontrolled source of glare or brightness imbalance. Floor-level windows have questionable safety value and deny the teacher much-coveted wall area for bookcases and cabinets.



FIG. 50: Architect's sketch of Stockton Elementary School, East Orange, N. J. This is an exterior view of a school with hexagonal classrooms. Courtesy of *The School Executive* and Mr. Emil A. Schmidlin, architect.

Along with improved classroom lighting have come other considerations for the health and comfort of the occupants. Efforts have been made to control the spread of respiratory diseases through air sterilization and humidity control.⁴¹ The survival time of respiratory tract organisms is least at moderate relative humidities near air temperatures of 70° F. With many individuals, drying of the skin and mucus membranes is an important source of winter discomfort. Air sterilization methods have consisted of ultra-violet radiation at a central point or through ultra-violet radiators radiating to the upper room area, increased ventilation rates, and the use of disinfectant vapors. To date the research findings do not show clear-cut advantages accruing from any of these methods.

The classroom is a working environment in which all occupants should be able to work with comfort. Appropriate lighting plays its role as one of the comfort-producing elements. Other factors consist of volume of

⁴¹ Isadore Rosenfield, "Germicidal Light in Classrooms," *American School and University*, Vol. 19, *op. cit.*, p. 131.

air per person, the rate of air change, the temperature, and the humidity. These several related factors combine to create the thermal environment of the classroom.⁴² The central problem in controlling the thermal environment of the classroom lies in the control of human heat loss. Thermal hygiene depends in large measure upon the amount of change from optimum conditions resulting from variations in air velocity, humidity, and radiant effects; in human heat production as a result of work; and in the effect of variable clothing on all of these factors. The human body strives to maintain an internal temperature of about 98.6° F. Six-year-old girls in school have a basal metabolism rate of 63.7; for boys the rate is 50.1. For the 42-year-old female teacher it is about 35.5. For the six-year-old a room temperature of 67° F. produces the same sensory and physiological effect as 75° F. for the older person. Thermostats controlled by women will average 3° to 4° higher than those operated by men. Unless teachers compensate for the difference by wearing warmer clothing, the children will be kept in rooms that are too hot for working comfort, especially when one considers that the pupils are more active than the teacher. The amount of air circulation required depends upon the air space per person and the freshness of the air. Body odor is a frequent problem in rooms occupied by groups. Children are known to be less concerned with cleanliness than adults. In some neighborhoods the body odor problem is greater than in others. Air circulation in classrooms should be adjusted to this problem. For grade school children of average socio-economic status, the outdoor air supply in cubic feet per minute per person may be as low as 11 if the air space in the classroom allows 500 cubic feet per person; if, however, the classroom cubage allows only 100 cubic feet of air per person, the outdoor air supply should be increased to 29 cubic feet per minute per person.⁴³

Some elementary schools in all parts of the country have been equipped with radiant heating systems. Usually radiant panel systems introduce heat from the floor or the ceiling. In rooms with eight-foot ceilings, it has been customary to keep the design such that the room is adequately heated without exceeding panel surface temperatures of 100° F.; temperatures beyond this tend to cause unpleasant degrees of heat sensation on the head and face. In floor panel systems the problem is met by restricting surface temperatures to values which do not result in overheating the feet. Added comfort is produced in individual classrooms by equipping each room with its own control thermostat. Thermostats located at one or two central points in the building frequently leave some rooms overheated while others are too cold.

⁴² Darell B. Harmon, *Controlling the Thermal Environment of the Coordinated Classroom* (Minneapolis, Minneapolis-Honeywell Regulator Co., 1953); L. P. Herrington, "Effect of Thermal Environment on Human Action," *American School and University*, Vol. 24, *op. cit.*, pp. 367-376.

⁴³ Herrington, *op. cit.*, p. 276.

The idea of the self-contained classroom, associated with recent curriculum trends, has brought other conveniences to the classroom. Most new elementary schools now have a drinking fountain, a sink with an adjacent work counter, and individual room toilets in each classroom. The idea of the individual room toilet began in the nursery school and kindergarten, was later extended to include the primary grades, and is now commonly accepted throughout the elementary grades. Frequently the individual room toilets are placed between adjoining classrooms so that one toilet will serve girls from two adjacent rooms and another toilet will serve boys from two rooms. Plumbing installation costs and maintenance of individual room toilets are little, if any, higher than for the gang toilets, but teacher supervision is easier and more extensive. The individual room installations contribute much to the school's health program.

Larger, better lighted, better heated, better ventilated classrooms have made it possible to provide more adequately for other facilities which contribute further to a rich instructional program. Each classroom is equipped with several strategically placed electrical outlets so that projectors and other electrically operated machines can be used. Expanded usage of audio-visual aids has brought darkening materials or shades to each classroom.⁴⁴ Built-in shelves and storage spaces are more generous than in former years. Wherever possible, movable equipment is chosen to permit maximum flexibility in room usage. Movable seating, easels, exhibit tables, and reading tables are common in modern schools. Greater attention is given to the working heights of children in the different age groups when classroom equipment is chosen and when built-in features are designed. Engelhardt's report of Bowman's study of the working heights of elementary school children should be reviewed carefully by educators and architects.⁴⁵ In the Commodore Stockton School in San Francisco, in which the enrollment consists almost 100 per cent of Chinese, the standing height of children resembled the height of children in other schools with cosmopolitan enrollments at the kindergarten level only; at other grade levels the Chinese children, although somewhat older, were on the average from one to two and one-half inches shorter than children in the other schools included in the study. The measurements of children in San Francisco were then translated into working heights to be used by architects and those choosing school equipment. For example, the recommended heights for drinking fountains were: kindergarten, 24"; Grades, 1-3, 24" to 26"; Grades 4-6, 31"; Grades 7-9, 32"; and Grades 10-12, 34". Comparable variations were recommended for some 53 items, including door knobs, light switches, sinks, chalk rails, easels, chairs, desks, and tables.

⁴⁴ Ralph D. McLeary, "How School Organization Affects Plant Needs," *School Executive*, Vol. 70 (August, 1951), p. 65.

⁴⁵ N. L. Engelhardt, Jr., "The Working Heights of Elementary School Children," *American School and University*, Vol. 22, *op. cit.*, pp. 349-350.

SPECIAL INSTRUCTIONAL ROOMS

Professional opinion and experience are not always in agreement regarding the types of special instructional rooms required in an elementary school. Agreement is practically unanimous on the need for a centralized library in each elementary school with an enrollment of 200 or more pupils, but opinions vary as to the best ways to provide for adequate library service in schools with less than 200 pupils. Judgments differ sharply on the need for a special music room, a special art room, a dark room for amateur photography, or a projection room for the use of audio-visual aids.

Chapter 10 represents an extended treatment of library service in elementary schools. If the goals for library service projected in Chapter 10 are to be achieved, a central library adequate in size and equipment seems imperative. The library room should be attractive, homey, and large enough to seat about 50 pupils. Seating should include tables and chairs, a few settees, and some individual upholstered or cane chairs or rockers. Shelving is important equipment in a library; it may be built-in or free-standing. If it is free-standing it should be designed to guarantee against tipping. Best usage is probably obtained if about 80 per cent of the shelving is eight inches deep, 10 per cent 10 inches deep, and 10 per cent 12 inches deep. All shelves should be adjustable vertically. The total height of shelves should not exceed five and one-half feet in the elementary school.

A well-planned central library makes generous provision for a librarian's office or workroom, a charging desk, card catalog cabinets, files of several sizes for pamphlets, bulletins, and pictures, and storage spaces for records, films, slides, maps, and other instructional aids circulated through the central library. Several book trucks should be available, the number depending upon the size of the school and whether book trucks are used in classrooms to augment shelf space for temporary classroom collections. If the school has a projection room used by classes for viewing slides and films, this room should be adjacent to the library to facilitate film service. Some schools have a small projection room used for previewing films and slides by teachers or individual pupils or small pupil committees. If such a preview room is available, it should be located adjacent to the library or planned as a part of the library layout.

Provision for darkening each classroom with drapes or shades reduces the need for a special visual aids projection room. If capital outlay costs are an important consideration, and they usually are, darkening equipment for each classroom can be secured at considerably less cost than a special projection room large enough to seat a whole class. Since pupils should be seated far enough away from the screen for clear vision and to prevent eyestrain, a projection room should be rectangular in shape with a length considerably greater than its width. This type of room usually does not fit into the basic design of the building unless an undue amount

of floor area is allocated to it. Whether it fits into the basic design or a modification of it, the construction costs are high, unless a high percentage of utilization can be demonstrated. Such utilization data as have been published to date hardly warrant the space given to special projection rooms.

The somewhat negative attitude toward special projection rooms in elementary schools should be interpreted in the light of several considerations other than capital outlay costs. Audio-visual aids usually permeate the curriculum to a greater degree if they can be shown in each classroom. Scheduling and other special arrangements associated with the use of a special projection room tend to discourage the use of visual aids. If special viewing situations arise occasionally, the school auditorium may be used. A preview room, on the other hand, presents quite a different problem. Every school should have a preview room, whether it does or does not have a special projection room. A preview room enables teachers to preview visual aids at any time before, during, or after school hours when time is available. If audio-visual aids are to be used generously and wisely, teachers should preview the films and slides; if this is to be accomplished, there must be convenient facilities for doing it. With minor adaptations, a preview room can be equipped to serve as a dark-room for use by a camera club or adult groups interested in amateur photography.

The emphasis being given to music in elementary schools raises the question about a special music room. Curriculum integration associated with the self-contained classroom and the single-teacher-per-class plan of organization tend to locate music instruction within the general classroom. If a special teacher of music serves each classroom on a part-time schedule, the music teacher can be provided with a wheeled cart so that music books, records, record players, and instruments can be transported easily from one classroom to another. Some music teachers who have had special music rooms and have also been itinerant teachers prefer the latter plan. The traveling music teacher replaces hall traffic by class groups who otherwise would have to go to the special music room. A somewhat contrary recommendation was given by the American Association of School Administrators. They advised that even in relatively small elementary schools specific areas be planned to accommodate the music program.⁴⁶ Location of music rooms adjoining or near the auditorium stage was recommended. Special acoustical treatment is necessary for all music rooms.

In schools in which the more or less regular instruction in music takes place in the classrooms there is need for specialized facilities for group instruction in wind or string instruments and for chorus or glee club activities, especially if these activities are to occur during the official school day. If a school has a suitable auditorium, its intermittent use by music

⁴⁶ *American School Buildings, op. cit.*, p. 103.

groups would be feasible, and no special music room would be needed. However, if a suitable auditorium is not available, specialized features of the music program usually suffer unless a special music room is provided.

Very little is said in the literature about the need for a special art and handicraft room. One gains the impression that the provision for work areas, work counters near sinks, and storage spaces for tools and supplies in regular classrooms obviates the need for a special art and handicraft room. A realistic look at the problem might lead to some other conclusion. It is now well agreed that elementary-school art should include work with wood, leather, metal and other media, as well as painting and drawing. Many of the handicraft activities require large work surfaces, sawing, hammering, and other noisy activities. A single classroom can never provide enough equipment for a whole class, even if many kinds of art activities are engaged in simultaneously by different children. Some handicraft projects associated with units in social studies and science should be done while other students are engaged in reference or committee work. The basic question is whether the general classroom can provide, or tolerate, the variety of art activities which a well-balanced modern program entails. Can a good art program be developed in a school without a special art room?

The author is proposing that the issue about a special art room be given serious consideration. Perhaps the solution would be a special art-handicraft-science laboratory which teachers and their classes would use on a sign-up basis, not a regular weekly schedule, but as each class, or a committee, had projects which required the use of the space and equipment available in such a special room. Such a laboratory would have one or more sinks, a gas outlet for the use of a Bunsen burner, woodworking benches, all kinds of tools, clay bins, long tables, and a science demonstration table. The latter could be used by teachers when they planned demonstrations which require more elaborate facilities than are available in the regular classroom. Kilns and looms of various sizes could also be placed in this special laboratory.

GYMNASIUM, AUDITORIUM, AND ALL-PURPOSE ROOMS

In designing a school the primary thought should be the creation of an educational center. Yet that very thought has been ignored in designing many elementary schools. In the latter cases the procedure is merely that of dividing the expected enrollment by the anticipated average size of class and then constructing enough classrooms to house the pupils. The result is the building of so many classrooms, not the building of an educational center. Classrooms alone do not make a school. Even classrooms with the most modern design do not in themselves provide all the facilities required

for a complete educational center for elementary school children. The library, certain special instructional rooms, an auditorium, a gymnasium, a lunchroom, and suitable outdoor teaching and play areas are as essential as classrooms.

In the educational work with children, the auditorium is needed for selected speech activities, a few music activities, and playmaking. Although the usual, more formal type of public speaking has no place in the elementary school, there are certain proficiencies in oral communication which are difficult for children to acquire unless some type of an auditorium situation is provided. The classroom gives many opportunities for children to practice the giving of reports, stories, and descriptions. These classroom experiences, however, should be supplemented with experience in larger audience situations to give pupils poise and confidence. A large proportion of adult conversation, activity in the business and commercial world, and the affairs and meetings of social, civic, service, and welfare groups involves these same forms of oral communication. The elementary school can do much to help children acquire proficiency in the skills essential for versatility and success in later life if auditorium facilities are available in elementary schools.

What has been said about speech activities applies with equal force to playmaking. "Playmaking" is an inclusive term that is used to identify a variety of make-believe, role-playing, experience-reproducing activities of children.⁴⁷ "Creative dramatics" and "playmaking" are really synonymous terms and refer to (a) dramatic play, (b) story dramatization, (c) pantomime, and (d) puppets, marionettes, and shadow plays. Certain playmaking activities can be given full expression in the classroom, while others require the facilities of an auditorium. Many story dramatizations in all grades spring from the interest centers developed in social studies and science. Suitable physical facilities and an audience of guests are essential if the full educational potential of playmaking is to be realized.

Some large indoor floor area is needed in order to give full flow to those areas of the curriculum which include folk games, rhythms, and certain physical-education activities. During days of inclement weather, indoor space is needed for the regular physical education program. Heretofore, the best way to provide a large indoor floor area has been to construct a gymnasium or playroom. Gymnasiums have been standard equipment for high schools for a long while, but it is only recently that communities have been willing to include a gymnasium as part of the elementary-school plant.

There is still much uncertainty in the minds of educators and architects as to whether an auditorium or a gymnasium is really necessary for an elementary school. No doubt much of the uncertainty is due to the absence

⁴⁷ Winifred Ward, *Playmaking With Children* (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1947), pp. 3-4; John U. Michaelis, *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy* (New York, Prentice-Hall, 1950), p. 346.

of research regarding the specific uses to which each of these facilities is to be put. What are the specific music, speech, and dramatic activities which should be a part of a good elementary-school program and for which an auditorium setting is essential? What size school is required in order for these activities to command a sufficiently high percentage of auditorium utilization to justify its construction? What is satisfactory utilization of a special facility such as an auditorium? Holy's report of room utilization in high schools showed the percentage of utilization of special rooms to range from 50 to 83.⁴⁸ His report, however, did not cover utilization of gymnasiums, auditoriums, cafeterias, or libraries. Hage's study of auditorium usage in elementary schools in one city revealed rather meager usage.⁴⁹ In the schools which had separate auditoriums, the chief usage was for scheduled music classes and as a projection room, both involving only the use of the stage. In schools with combination lunchroom-auditorium (cafetorium), the chief uses were the same as in schools with a separate auditorium, the only difference being that in the cafeteriums the lunchroom areas were also used during the lunch hours while the stage was being used for the two activities previously named. All the schools included in Hage's study were overcrowded, some having certain grades on half-day sessions, thus bringing pressure to use the stage more or less as a classroom. One does not know in what ways the use of the auditorium will change in these schools when in the future enough classrooms become available.

Paucity of research regarding the specific uses, and percentage of utilization, of the gymnasium in different-sized schools has also left gymnasium designing in the realm of uncertainty. Since there are no clear-cut data on types and percentage of usage of auditorium or gymnasium, various theories and hunches have been used as a guide. One result has been the development of various multiple-purpose rooms, such as the lunchroom-gymnasium-auditorium combination, the gymnasium-auditorium combination, the cafetorium, and the library-lunchroom combination. In *American School Buildings* it is acknowledged that the combined auditorium-gymnasium is undesirable, and that, when such a combination is made, neither facility can be of maximum usefulness.⁵⁰ The statement is not supported by evidence from usage studies but any elementary-school principal who has such a combination would probably join gladly in a study to produce the supporting evidence. Actual studies of usage, and difficulties in usage, should be made of all types of combination units as well as the separate auditorium and the separate gymnasium. Until carefully conducted re-

⁴⁸ T. C. Holy, "What Is Good Utilization of a School?" *School Executive*, Vol. 68 (November, 1948), pp. 60-62.

⁴⁹ M. K. Hage, *Usage of Elementary School Auditoriums*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1953.

⁵⁰ American Association of School Administrators, *American School Buildings*, op. cit., p. 117.

search comes to the aid of school plant designers, these specialized facilities will continue to be a headache for both designers and users.

In the absence of fundamental research to guide educational planning for children's usage, it is likely that many gymnasium and auditorium facilities built in recent years have been designed primarily for use by teenagers and adults rather than for use by elementary-school pupils. High ceilings and basketball courts in elementary-school gymnasiums testify to the adult usage viewpoint. The idea of making every elementary school a community center in which young and old can engage in education and recreation is a noble thought. It may be an ideal worth striving for, but its practical consequences should be examined carefully. Will it mean elementary schools built primarily for adults rather than designed for children? Can the typical community afford the facilities for teen-age and adult activities at every elementary-school location? Does present and potential future utilization of these facilities justify the capital outlay costs?

As the questions in the preceding paragraph are studied, it may be worth while to also consider certain parallel issues. A gymnasium functionally planned for elementary-school pupils might not need the customary high ceiling, the customary size, or the customary equipment designed primarily for use by teen-agers and adults. A playroom really designed for use by elementary-school pupils might cost sufficiently less to permit every elementary school to have one. The typical auditorium, if it is a separate auditorium, is usually designed for adult use; its size, the stage, the dressing rooms, and the seating are geared to adult measurements. The auditorium feature of the combination lunchroom-auditorium or gymnasium-auditorium is obviously designed for adult usage. There has been enough experience with the combination to know that the auditorium part of it is seldom used by pupils. Instead of continuing to build useless monstrosities, someone should experiment with an auditorium specifically designed for children's use in the types of auditorium experiences vital in an elementary-school program. Such a children's auditorium, designed as a children's theater, probably should have a large, well-equipped stage, an elevated seating area equipped with benches and large enough to seat about 100 to 150 children. A capacity of 100 to 150, or even 300, would be large enough to house from three to five classes. There are really no good reasons for holding all-school assemblies. The major usage of the auditorium would be by class groups as they engage in speech and dramatic activities which require the more elaborate facilities of an auditorium. In order to have a genuine audience situation, the class engaging in the activity could invite a few adjoining classes, or their own parents, to be their guests. If the children's theater idea is successful, the cost of building a children's auditorium might be such as to permit every elementary school to have this facility in a form that is really useful.

The multi-purpose room suggested by some writers is not a substitute

for suitable gymnasium, auditorium, or lunchroom facilities.⁵¹ The multi-purpose room is merely an extra room which accommodates a variety of miscellaneous activities. It may be used as a gathering place for pupils waiting for the bus, for folk games and rhythms, as a meeting place for youth organizations, for flower shows and other exhibits, and as a meeting place for parent and civic groups. Because of limitations on construction funds, small schools may have to be content with a multi-purpose room in lieu of a suitable auditorium and gymnasium. In wealthier school districts the multi-purpose room is a convenient extra facility to have. One should not make the error of assuming that a multi-purpose room is a modern substitute for other facilities essential to a good elementary-school program.

SCHOOL-LUNCH FACILITIES

Although some elementary schools had provided lunchroom facilities prior to 1930, it is likely that the period from 1930 to 1945 will be characterized as the era in which the nutrition program of the schools reached early adulthood. It is doubtful whether after World War II very many schoolhouses will be built that do not make at least reasonably adequate provisions for children's meals eaten at school. Since so many rural as well as city schools have been conducting school-lunch programs under severe handicaps, the school people, the pupils, and the parents will insist that any new school to be built must have adequate lunchroom facilities. Evans has shown that a self-supporting lunch program can be conducted in a school with an enrollment of three hundred if the daily patrons number one-half of the enrollment.⁵²

Lunchroom facilities not only serve the pupils and the educational program of the school but also play a prominent role in the community's use of the school plant. As pointed out previously, many neighborhoods are without a convenient place for group dinners, and a well-planned lunchroom in the school can fill this need. There are many instances on record in which the provision of lunchroom facilities in the school marked the beginning of community get-togethers which resulted in the emergence of community spirit, solidarity, and action.

Instead of having a complete kitchen as part of the lunchroom layout in each school, some school systems are experimenting with a central kitchen in which all the food for all the schools is prepared. Portable steam and refrigerated carts or containers are used to haul the prepared food to each school. Other school systems are experimenting with the use of electric- or gas-heated food trucks. The food is prepared in the school kitchen or a central kitchen. Instead of having the children come to the

⁵¹ Engelhardt, Engelhardt, Jr., and Leggett, *op. cit.*, pp. 118-123.

⁵² F. O. Evans, "Building for the Small Elementary School," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 104 (January, 1942), pp. 15-18.

cafeteria in the usual manner, the food is carted to each classroom. Pupils and teacher are served in the classroom, thus maintaining closer class unity and a quieter environment in which to eat. When the class is through eating, the trucks are brought back to remove the soiled dishes and trays. As yet the literature does not provide an appraisal of these innovations in methods of managing the food service.

RADIO, TELEVISION, AND COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS

Schools are interested in the various communication media for educational and administrative purposes. Sometimes these two purposes are not viewed separately when decisions are made regarding the installation of equipment. The customary approach has been to meet both needs by the installation of a central sound system with a central control panel in the school office, or a separate control room as part of the office layout, and speaker outlets in each classroom, the gymnasium, the auditorium, the lunchroom, the bus loading zone, and such other locations as seemed important. The central sound system is used by the office staff for relaying to a single classroom, or to all speaker outlets, whatever announcements and administrative matters need transmission to teachers or pupils or both. The same central sound system is used to receive radio broadcasts to be relayed to one or more speaker outlets.

There is no question about the advantage of having a method for communication between the office and the teaching stations, especially in large schools. Unless some communication system is available, much time is spent by office personnel in carrying messages to teachers. The issue which needs to be studied is whether a central sound system or an intra-school telephone system serves administrative purposes the best. When messages are sent to a classroom via the central sound system, the work of the class is interrupted, the announcement cannot be a confidential message to the teacher, and, with most of the recently installed systems, the teacher cannot answer (converse with) the person in the office. These limitations are largely eliminated with the telephone intercommunication system. With a telephone system, the teacher can initiate a call to the office. Vodicka found that the cost of public address speaker systems in 10 elementary schools ranged from \$600 in a 10-classroom building to \$2800 in a 24-classroom building; the cost per school varied according to the size of the school and the quality of the equipment purchased.⁵³ The cost per classroom ranged from \$60 to \$116.66; the average cost per classroom in the 10 schools was \$89.47. A telephone intercommunication system in

⁵³ Edward M. Vodicka, "Some Comparisons and Experiences with 'Intercom' Systems in Elementary Schools," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 48 (September, 1951), pp. 58-59.

one school with 28 classroom outlets cost \$1715, or \$61.25 per classroom. In addition to outlets in the classrooms, there were telephone outlets in the boiler room, the cafeteria, the gymnasium, the teachers' lounge, the library, and in each of several pupil-personnel offices, making a total of 47 telephone outlets. The cost per outlet was only \$36.50.

Although central sound systems appear to serve the intra-school communication function less well than a telephone system, they do provide this service and, in addition, function as the receiver of radio programs. So much progress has been made in the use of radio in teaching that every school should be equipped for radio reception. The issue is whether a central sound system is the best method for doing it. The alternative to a central sound system is to equip each classroom with an individual radio receiving set which can be tuned in and turned off at the teacher's wish. Small portable, and relatively inexpensive, radios have been found satisfactory for classroom use. If individual radios in each classroom are anticipated, it is highly desirable that there be an outside antenna, high above the building, and separate conduits to each classroom. No research is available to show the approximate cost of the "individual radio in each classroom plan" so that no comparisons can be made with the cost of central sound systems. Most evaluations of central sound systems have been made without the advantage of the alternate plan for comparison.⁵⁴ From the classroom teacher's angle, it would seem that the individual room radio would give much greater flexibility of use.⁵⁵

Television is still in its infancy as a teaching tool in the elementary school. In 1949 the American Association of School Administrators made only a general recommendation to the effect that if a school is within 50 miles of a present or anticipated television station, television antennae should be built into the building at the time of construction.⁵⁶ For this purpose a separate conduit and co-axial cable are installed from the roof to the rooms desiring the service. Television receiving sets are still relatively expensive as general classroom equipment. The number of televised programs during school hours specifically geared to elementary-school pupils is very limited. Levenson and Stasheff point out that developments in television will probably be rapid.⁵⁷ One development is a method of

⁵⁴ William A. Veit, Jr., "School Sound Systems," *American School and University*, Vol. 22 (1950-51), pp. 356-360.

⁵⁵ Those interested in central sound systems may receive helpful information from: *School Sound Systems*, AiA-File #31-i-7, and *School Sound Recording and Playback Equipment*, AiA-File #31-i-7, Basic Standards, developed by the U. S. Office of Education and the Radio Manufacturers' Association Joint Committee; *Central Sound Systems for Schools*, Committee on Scientific Aids to Learning, 41 East 42nd Street, New York 17, N. Y.; *School Sound Systems and Planning Tomorrow's Schools*, Educational Department, Radio Corporation of America, Camden, N. J.

⁵⁶ *Op. cit.*, p. 161.

⁵⁷ William B. Levenson and Edward Stasheff, *Teaching Through Radio and Television*, rev. ed. (New York, Rinehart and Co., 1952), pp. 533-540.

recording programs (via kinescope transcription) that can be rebroadcast during school hours. The hope is that duplicates of such sound films can be made inexpensively and the prints made available for classroom showings. Progress is also being made in the production of low-cost television receivers. Color television has been available since 1945, but color programs and black-and-white programs could not be received on the same receiving set. Some progress has already been made in the development of a tri-color tube which may permit reception of color or black-and-white telecasts with the same receiving set, using any sized screen.

Uncertainties about equipping schools with television installations, caused by present problems and anticipated developments, can be paralleled for conventional radio programs. The expanding production and use of disc, wire, and tape recordings may, in time, replace the air waves as a transmission medium. Recordings can be made in studios and distributed to schools as we now distribute books, films, and slides. School equipment for the use of recordings will be quite different from the central sound systems which have held sway in the past.

USE AND IMPROVEMENT OF EXISTING FACILITIES

Problems pertaining to the construction of new schoolhouses confront educators each year, but they do not confront each community or each school faculty each year. It has been estimated that the average superintendent engages in a building program twice during his professional career. The majority of teachers, principals, and superintendents are confronted each year with the problem of using and improving the school facilities which already exist. It is unfortunate, from the standpoint of necessary use of inadequate and outmoded buildings, that costly structures cannot be replaced as often as educational programs suggest the desirability of change.

In 1952 the U. S. Office of Education made its first progress report on the school facilities survey authorized by the Eighty-first Congress.⁵⁸ This report summarized the findings from 25 states which contained 44 per cent of the public school pupils enrolled in 1951-1952 in the continental United States and the territories. Although only 25 states were covered in this report, the findings are probably representative of the entire nation. For the 25 states the findings were as follows:

AGE OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL BUILDINGS	PERCENTAGE OF BUILDINGS	PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS ENROLLED
Less than 11 years	14	20
11 to 20 years	17	19
21 to 30 years	24	29
31 to 50 years	25	22
Over 50 years	20	10

⁵⁸ *First Progress Report of the School Facilities Survey* (Washington, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1952).

The inadequacy of existing school facilities is a distinct handicap to current educational programs, but of equal if not greater significance is the educational leadership and community low-ebb interest in education that allowed the school buildings to degenerate into their present inadequate, dilapidated, uncared-for condition. Financial inability is not a legitimate excuse in most school districts for not keeping school buildings in good repair and reasonably up to date in their facilities. If the people had been interested, as their forefathers were, in having the best schools as judged by the educational needs of the times, and had been given the facts as to what constituted an up-to-date school, most school plants would not be in their present unsatisfactory condition. The poor school facilities found throughout this country represent a blight on educational leadership and public concern about education.

The situation need not and dare not remain as it is. Fortunately there are many methods that can be used to bring about improvements. In some instances consolidation of districts and the construction of new buildings is the best answer. In other cases the modernization of existing facilities is the best answer in meeting the problems until such time as new buildings can be erected. Each school plant should be kept up to date within the limits permissible by the plant itself.⁵⁹ Practically every school district in the United States has the ability to maintain reasonably modern school facilities if there is the will to do so.

SCHOOL-PLANT OPERATION AND MAINTENANCE

New buildings as well as modernized and unmodernized older buildings give service only to the extent that they are properly utilized, operated, and maintained. Thorough utilization of all available facilities is an important objective to be sought. Various studies have shown that in the typical school classrooms are utilized to only about 80 per cent of maximum usage and that the percentage of utilization falls to less than 10 for certain special rooms such as auditoriums and lunchrooms. Maximum plant utilization is dependent upon program making and the scope of the curriculum. Frequently splendid facilities within the building, on the school grounds, and in the community are unused because the curriculum does not envision the use of these resources for teaching.

Facilities must be maintained in good condition or in good working order if they are to be useful. Motion picture projectors, maps on rollers, window shades, windows, doors, stage curtains, drinking fountains, wash bowls, and paper cutters are but a few of the things which must be kept in

⁵⁹ H. D. Hynds, "Modernization of School Buildings," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 121 (November, 1950), p. 96; John J. Krill, "School Plant Renovation," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 116 (May, 1948), p. 15; Owen B. Kiernan, "Let's Not Discard Them All," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 37 (June, 1946), p. 34.

good working order so that they are usable when needed. One can visit schools almost anywhere any day and find some things which have been out of order for some time, there being apparently no system whereby these matters can be attended to. In the meantime the work of teachers is handicapped, and the educational experiences of pupils are jeopardized.

Service systems using consumable supplies must be kept stocked. Soap containers, paper-towel containers, and toilet-paper holders need to be replenished with a frequency commensurate with the rate of consumption. There are few practices that are more short-sighted from an educational standpoint than to short-circuit the supplies in service rooms. There is little point in stressing health practices in the classroom if the lavatory contains no soap, paper towels, or toilet paper. Some writers have stated that the most elaborate plan of health education seems to be without point unless school buildings have adequate and even attractive toilet rooms equipped with wash bowls, clean toilets and urinals, sufficient supplies of toilet paper, soap, and towels. Toilet rooms and rest rooms must be well lighted, ventilated, and without odors, and must be maintained in spotless condition so that children can acquire good habits.

Another important phase of plant operation is the daily care which must be given to all parts of the building. There is the daily cleaning of floors, dusting the woodwork and equipment, scrubbing and mopping, cleansing and polishing of woodwork and furniture, washing glass in panels, doors, and windows, toilet-cleaning, blackboard-cleaning, eraser-dusting, other cleaning, and care of heating and ventilating systems. Several excellent books and check list standards have been prepared.⁶⁰ Copies of these ought to be in every school.

Directing and supervising the work of the engineering-custodial staff is a duty which usually falls upon the principal. Even in very large cities where the janitorial and engineering service is highly systematized, there are many phases of the job which require the attention of the principal. In the smaller cities and villages the direction and supervision of janitorial service is left almost entirely to the principal. This means that the principal must be familiar with modern methods of building care, must be able to give assistance in the organization and direction of the service, and must be versatile in the administration and in-service education of the custodial staff. Helpful suggestions on these matters may be obtained from published sources.⁶¹

⁶⁰ N. E. Viles, *The Custodian At Work* (Lincoln, Nebr., University Publishing Co., 1941); Frances A. Schoonmaker, *A Manual for Maids in Schools and Colleges* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950); Alanson D. Brainard, *Handbook for School Custodians* (Lincoln, Nebr., University of Nebraska Press, 1948); Henry H. Linn, Leslie C. Helm, and K. P. Grabarkiewicz, *The School Custodian's Housekeeping Handbook* (New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1948).

⁶¹ Albert J. Huggard, "Standards for Janitors in Small Schools," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 111 (November, 1945), pp. 51-53; B. H. Van Oot, "Training

In view of recent trends of thought regarding citizenship education, some schools have developed a considerable variety of ways in which children assist in the care and operation of the school building. Pupil participation in the care of the school plant is not at all a new idea; rural schools have always had more or less of it. Unfortunately city schools, with their highly organized engineering-custodial service, have wandered considerably afield from such practices. Newer concepts of functional education, work experience, and realistic citizenship training are bringing about a revival of interest in pupil participation in the care of the school plant. This trend appears to be sound and should be explored more fully by all schools.

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16

The Professional Elementary-School Principal

THE WORD *principal* has been used for a long time. The elementary-school principalship, however, is a recently developed position in the administration of public education. Morrison, after an analysis of manuscripts depicting the historical development of the elementary-school principalship in various eastern cities, pointed out that the first use of the word *principal* is difficult to trace.¹ The term appeared in the Common School Report of Cincinnati as early as 1838. Annual reports for the city of Albany, New York, indicate that the title of principal has been used since the organization of the school system in 1844. The ordinance of the Common Council of Buffalo, New York, for the year 1863 outlines in some detail the duties of the elementary-school principal.

Since the exact title used is less significant in ascertaining the status of the principal than the duties of the position, it may be of interest to examine the latter. Historical records indicate clearly that the early principals were merely head teachers who had been assigned certain clerical and administrative tasks in addition to their teaching duties. As interest in public education developed and the increasing number of children attending made larger school buildings essential, and as the monitorial and departmental schools were replaced by graded schools, the administrative and clerical duties increased in number and importance. The principal was also called on to perform certain functions which might legitimately be classed as supervisory in character.

The following excerpt quoted by Morrison from the Report of the School Committee of the Common Council of Buffalo, dated 1863, illustrates this point:²

It is a two-story building of plain but imposing design in the form of an L with slate roof and substantial outbuildings. It has five rooms on each floor, and each room is designed to accommodate about seventy pupils, to be under the care of a single teacher. The principal's room on each floor will occupy that

¹ J. C. Morrison, "The Principalship Develops Supervisory Status," Tenth Year-book (Washington, Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A., 1931), Ch. I.

² *Ibid.*, p. 157.

portion of the building represented by the lower left-hand corner of the L and is expected to seat from sixty to seventy-five pupils. The rooms are separated by sliding partitions so that all the rooms on each floor can be thrown into one when occasion shall require it. These sliding partitions also are to be made mostly of glass in the form of window sash, so as to give freer access to the light and equalize its distribution and to enable the principal while engaged in his own room to inspect the management of all the others. As a measure of economy and convenience this plan is believed to be superior to any other hitherto devised and put in practice for school purposes.

It soon became apparent that this multiplicity of duties could not be performed satisfactorily unless the principal was relieved of part of his teaching load. Thus may be recognized the beginnings of the elementary-school principalship as defined above. This stage in the development of the principalship did not come, however, until after the close of the nineteenth century. In the meantime the growth of the academies and high schools had transferred the allegiance and interest of the public and of the profession from the local elementary school to the high school. Invariably the elementary school became a ward school, and frequently ward politicians became interested in filling the principalship from among the ranks of teachers who through long years of tenure had demonstrated their abilities as classroom teachers and who had at the same time made a large circle of friends. Even if political ambitions were not present, it became the custom of superintendents to fill the position from the ranks of elementary classroom teachers. Consequently, as a result of these and other developments, it was not generally recognized that the principal should be equipped to exercise powers of leadership in his own school.

As the machinery for the administration of city schools grew in scope and complexity, superintendents felt the need for staffing the central office with administrative assistants of various kinds. The growing need for more and better supervision and direction of classroom instruction suggested the desirability of planning the administrative organization so that this need could be met. Those acting as principals of elementary schools were not qualified by either training or experience to participate effectively in the supervisory programs which were gradually developing. Realizing the status of the elementary principals, the superintendents resorted to supplying supervisory leadership through the appointment of supervisors who were to work out from the central administrative offices. Both general and special supervision developed, and principals were left largely to themselves in control of discipline, the performance of clerical duties, the exercise of executive detail, and classroom teaching.

Once the administrative machinery had developed in the above fashion, it became entrenched—like other established practices—and was difficult to alter, even though weaknesses, maladjustments, and overlapping functions were recognized. It is little wonder, then, that it was not until relatively recent years that the elementary-school principalship has been

recognized as a key position in the administration of the schools and has been assigned the major administrative and supervisory functions for which it is so strategically situated. The slowness with which this development of the elementary principalship has taken place is indicated by the fact that even today, in many communities, those acting as elementary principals spend most of their time in classroom teaching and administrative and clerical detail.

That steady progress was being made during the past one hundred years in attaching greater importance to the position of the elementary principal was shown clearly by Pierce, who traced the development of the principalship through the annual reports of twelve large city school systems.³ Pierce traced this development in terms of the nature and scope of administrative responsibilities, supervisory functions, relations with general and special supervisors, community leadership, the personnel of the principalship, and the professional status of the principal. The evolving status of the elementary principal is indicated further by later investigations of the duties and activities of principals. Coxe found in 1926 that 66 per cent of the elementary-school principals in New York cities and villages employing superintendents did no teaching whatsoever.⁴ The Seventh Yearbook committee found that in 1928 a little more than 4 per cent of the average working day of the average supervising principal was given to classroom teaching.⁵ Although freedom from teaching is not the sole index of the importance attached to the position of principal, yet it seems clear that few principals will be able to exercise real professional supervisory capacities unless they are relieved from other duties.

The professional elementary-school principal, as defined earlier, is thus a comparatively recent addition to the organization for the administration of city schools. The first steps toward organizing the Department of Elementary School Principals in the National Education Association were taken in 1920 by a small group of principals attending the University of Chicago. By February, 1921, the committee had organized a program and held its first meeting with the Department of Superintendence at Atlantic City. Whether elementary principals will continue to develop their strategic opportunities for leadership in the administration of American education will depend upon the extent to which they will be prepared and competent to meet the challenges which seemingly are coming to them in increasing number.

³ P. R. Pierce, *The Origin and Development of the Public School Principalship* (Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1935).

⁴ W. W. Coxe, *Study of the Elementary School Principal in New York State*, University of the State of New York Bulletin, No. 926 (June 15, 1929).

⁵ *The Elementary School Principalship*, Seventh Yearbook (Washington, Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A., 1928), p. 204.

THE POSITION OF THE PRINCIPAL IN THE ORGANIZATION FOR ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

School administration in practically all cities of the United States is organized on a plan which provides that each local school unit which houses elementary-school children is in charge of an administrative head. The official titles as well as the duties of the heads of elementary schools differ materially from city to city and from school to school within the same city. Although the title of "principal" is used in most cases, other titles such as "head-teacher," "supervising principal," and "district principal" are used. Similarity of title, however, is no assurance that duties and responsibilities are identical or even similar. In some schools, primarily the smaller ones, the principal is simply a head-teacher who carries a full-time teaching load and does such administrative work as can be accomplished during spare moments and before and after school. The administration of the school thus becomes incidental to his other duties as teacher. In other schools may be found principals teaching only part of the time and devoting the remainder of their time to administrative and supervisory tasks. Usually in the larger elementary schools principals are relieved of all teaching duties.

The principal of an elementary school is usually considered as a line-officer in the administration of the educational program of a city. The delegation of authority and responsibility usually proceeds from the superintendent of schools, through assistant and district superintendents, if such officers are found in the system, to the principal of the school. The principal of a school and the superintendent of a school system thus hold somewhat complementary positions in the administration of a system of public instruction. The superintendent is primarily responsible to the school board and the people for the successful conduct of the whole school system while the principal is responsible for the successful operation of a single school or a group of related schools. It is largely the principal who must assume responsibility for applying in local units the educational policies and theories which have been adopted for the system as a whole and which it is hoped will find expression in the classrooms of the city. Obviously various types of administrative and supervisory officers will provide assistance, but the proverb "As is the principal, so is the school" has now become a truism, for whatever the educational policies within a single school are, they are largely subject to the principal's direct control.

Two earlier studies helped to clarify the position of the principal in the organization for administration. In 1938 Reavis reported the findings of an intensive study of the status of the principalship in 18 large cities.⁶

⁶ W. C. Reavis, "The Administrative Status of the School Principal in Large Cities," *Educational Record*, Vol. 19 (October, 1938), pp. 433-448.

In virtually all of these cities, a complete detachment of local lay control over the local school principal had been achieved. The tendency of principals to have direct administrative relations with members of the board of education had largely disappeared. The superintendent of schools was recognized as the chief executive officer and the principal as the chief representative of the superintendent in the local school. Special and general supervisors, found in all cities studied, were generally regarded as advisors or consultants to the principal and were seldom clothed with administrative authority. Leipold, in 1941, published the findings of his questionnaire study in which he interrogated 300 elementary-school principals.⁷ His findings showed that initial selection and placement of teachers was primarily a function of the superintendent, but that 80 per cent of the principals were consulted sometimes in the appointment of new teachers. The rating of teachers was a duty of the principals in the majority of the school systems.

The most recent investigation of the principal's status in the school system was reported by the Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A.⁸ In one phase of the study each principal was asked to give his opinion as to the general professional status of the principalship in his school system. Three levels of general status were described on the questionnaire as given below, and each respondent was asked to check one of the levels. The three levels were:

- (a) The principal is clearly recognized as the responsible head of a school unit with authority to plan and carry out, thru democratic processes, the highest possible type of program for the community. He is encouraged to participate in planning and policy-making for the entire school system. His position is magnified.
- (b) The principal is given some recognition for his professional knowledge and encouraged to function efficiently. While primarily concerned with carrying out the plans and policies of the central office and schoolboard, the principal is expected to plan for his school unit.
- (c) The principal is expected to carry out orders, file reports promptly, report on conditions, make only minor decisions, make no unique plans for school community, and have no part in making school system policies. The position gets no special recognition.

Level (a) was characterized by the key word *leaders*, level (b) as *supporters*, and level (c) as *followers*. According to principals' own judgments, 44 per cent of supervising principals and 25 per cent of teaching principals rated their status as leaders; 49 and 57 per cent, respectively,

⁷ L. E. Leipold, "Elementary School Principals: Their Role in Administration," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 28 (November, 1941), pp. 21-22.

⁸ *The Elementary-School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, Twenty-seventh Yearbook (Washington, Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A., 1948), Ch. 5.

TABLE 41: General Role of Principals Within the School System and Their Own Authority as Reported by 1413 Supervising Principals and 413 Teaching Principals in 1947 *

ITEM	PERCENTAGE OF	
	<i>Supervising Principals</i>	<i>Teaching Principals</i>
1. Superintendent's and board's conception of principalship (as reported by principals):		
a. Recognized as the responsible head of a school unit	44	25
b. Given some recognition for his professional knowledge	49	57
c. Given no special recognition	7	18
2. Budget preparation:		
a. Principal has no voice in the matter	52	60
b. Principal makes recommendation, subject to extensive revision by central office	29	26
c. Principal prepares budget, which, with minor revisions, is approved by the central office	19	14
3. School system policies:		
a. Principals are never consulted	6	12
b. Principals individually may be consulted	26	40
c. Principals are frequently appointed, along with classroom teachers and others, to serve on general school system committees which make recommendations to the superintendents of schools	68	48
4. Selection of teachers:		
a. Principal has no voice in the matter	20	32
b. Superintendent (or staff) and principal cooperate in some assignments	46	38
c. Superintendent (or staff) and principal cooperate in all assignments	27	23
d. Teachers are assigned only upon principal's recommendation	7	7
5. Selection of instructional supplies:		
a. Principal limited to standard materials furnished to all schools	30	17
b. Principal orders beyond the standard list, subject to superintendent's approval	29	28
c. Principal (with aid of teachers) may order what seems best, subject to budget allotment made to his school building	41	55

* Adapted from *The Elementary School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, Twenty-seventh Yearbook (Washington, Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A., 1948), pp. 72-74, 78-80.

as supporters; and 7 and 18 per cent, respectively, as followers. Principals' notions of their own status are somewhat at variance with superintendents' opinions regarding the status of principals. Among 681 superintendents queried, 66 per cent thought of principals as leaders; 32 per cent viewed principals as supporters; and only 2 per cent judged principals as followers. Does this discrepancy between the views of principals and superintendents reveal a hope by superintendents and a frank appraisal of present practice by principals? Is it likely that principals are not taking advantage of the leadership opportunities which are open to them?

The principals' appraisal of their own roles in specific activities is partially revealed in Table 41. Note that principals, generally, are given greater responsibility in the selection of instructional supplies than in most of the other areas listed in the table. Among the items not shown in Table 41, determination of time allotments was done through principal-teacher cooperation in 55 per cent of the schools served by supervising principals and in 60 per cent of the schools served by teaching principals. Only in about 10 per cent of the schools represented in the study were time allotments and schedules prescribed on a system-wide basis without some leeway given to the principal and teachers in each school. Schedules handed down from the central office were more prominent in larger than in smaller school systems; in cities above 100,000 population, about 20 per cent of the schedules were prescribed by the central office.

In such matters as selection of content within subject areas, determination of specific methods, and instructional decisions within each building, principals have varying degrees of autonomy comparable to the percentages shown in Table 41. In general, as compared to comparable data reported in 1928, the professional status of principals reveals substantial forward progress in the principal's authority and freedom of action.

THE WORK OF THE PRINCIPAL

The functions and duties of the principal of an elementary school are numerous and varied. The character of his position is such that the problems which come to him are almost as broad as the whole field of public education. Even though the elementary principal may not be called upon to deal with all the types of problems, he must be intelligent about them and direct his activities according to broad insights. Doubtless the exact duties performed by the principal vary in different schools because of the influence of community conditions, school size, pupil nationality, policies of the superintendent, the training of the principal himself, and other factors. There may be enough similarity in the work of principals, however, so that an examination of their duties is of value.

Several extensive studies have been made of the duties and activities of

elementary-school principals.⁹ In 1948, the typical elementary-school principal, regardless of size of city, spent about nine hours at school each day. In addition to the weekly time spent at school, the typical principal devoted about six hours per week to self-improvement, four hours to school system improvement, and two hours to general improvement of the profession. His total work week adds up to about 56 hours. Supervising principals' time at school each week was distributed, on the average, as follows: administration, 29.3 per cent; supervision, 24.1 per cent; pupil personnel, 14.8 per cent; clerical, 15.1 per cent; teaching, 2.3 per cent; community, 9.3 per cent; and miscellaneous, 5.1 per cent.¹⁰

When principals were asked to indicate what they considered the ideal distribution of the principal's time, they said that they would like to shift the proportion of time given to supervision from 24.1 to 37.3 per cent, and the proportion given to clerical work from 15.1 to 3.5 per cent; smaller shifts in time were indicated for each of the other five groups of duties.¹¹ If some of the thoughts projected in Chapter 14 could be put into effect, the principal's clerical duties could be reduced to the ideal proportion recommended by the principals themselves. If 37.3 per cent of a principal's time could actually be devoted to supervision, there is good hope that the principal's leadership role in curriculum improvement could be realized. Thirty-seven per cent of a nine-hour day would mean better than three hours per day devoted to the different ways of working with teachers discussed in Chapter 8. It is the principal's work load and the distribution of his time which need to be studied carefully in each local situation if principals are to have the opportunity to discharge the leadership functions which superintendents and the community expect of them.

PROFESSIONAL LEADERSHIP IN LOCAL ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Education has come to be a broad and intricate field of endeavor. Nearly every phase of teaching and learning has been subjected to careful study and research and there is available a body of literature presenting the data which have been gathered, and attempting to interpret the facts and related theories. If the concept of teaching and learning may be ex-

⁹ Some of these studies are summarized in *The Elementary School Principalship*, Seventh Yearbook, *op. cit.*, Ch. IV; D. F. Geyer, *A Study of the Administrative and Supervisory Duties of the Teaching Principal in the Small Elementary School*, Bulletin of Information, Vol. 22, No. 7 (Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, July, 1942); J. H. Hodges and F. R. Pauly, *Problems of Administration and Supervision in Modern Elementary Schools* (Oklahoma City, Okla., Harlow Publishing Corp., 1941); *The Elementary-School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, Twenty-seventh Yearbook, *op. cit.*, Chs. 6, 7, and 8.

¹⁰ *The Elementary-School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, Twenty-seventh Yearbook, *op. cit.*, p. 87.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 90.

tended to include such items as educational objectives, curriculum, administration, finance, and teacher training, and if one also remembers that education is applied from the preschool period to adulthood, it is evident that education is as comprehensive as any one field of human endeavor. Any person who has the self-confidence to accept a position which carries responsibilities for the direction and guidance of this broad and all-important social enterprise must be an individual of extensive training, keen insights, and of unique leadership and administrative qualities. Although the elementary-school principal is responsible for leadership in only the introductory unit of the system of public schools, he must be a student of the entire program for public education in order that he may have the proper perspective regarding the relationship of his unit to the other units in the system. In the past much inarticulation between school units has been caused by the lack of this perspective on the part of teachers and administrators. Then, too, the elementary principal has charge of the type of school which reaches the largest number of patrons and pupils. Public attitudes regarding education are molded in large measure while the children of each family are attending the elementary school. From the viewpoint of the child the elementary school is of capital significance because of the importance of proper direction of learning during the early years.

Elementary education is of sufficient importance and complexity to challenge the superior abilities of the most competent persons that can be mustered into the profession. Certainly the opportunities for service are large for those who aim to be principals of elementary schools. Throughout the preceding chapters current theories and administrative practices have been subjected to critical analyses, and attention has been called to the many unsolved problems regarding the organization and administration of elementary schools. Intelligent experimentation and the ultimate solution of pertinent issues hold vague hope unless those most closely associated with the management of schools—the principals—can assume active leadership.

Within a specific elementary school, teachers, pupils, and patrons look to the principal for leadership. Even though general and special supervisors may assist with certain phases of the work, the eyes of the school community are focused upon the principal. It is from him that counsel and guidance is most frequently sought. Pathetically enough, this leadership is frequently lacking. Its absence, however, is soon recognized by teachers, pupils, and others. Conversely, a high quality of professional leadership invariably generates a businesslike air of enthusiasm and confidence. Usually the influence of the principal is so potent, whether positively or negatively, that the atmosphere of the school reflects his leadership.

The opportunities, or better stated, the obligations for leadership may be classified roughly into several divisions. As previously discussed, the

principal is a line-officer in the plan for school administration. As an administrative officer he has frequent occasion in conference to assist in the formulation of policies for the school system. At all times he carries major responsibility for applying in his own school in the most effective manner the policies which have been accepted for city-wide use. Consequently he has the continuous challenge of organizing and administering his school in a fashion which will permit the adopted theories and principles to receive expression in classroom instruction. As indicated repeatedly in previous chapters, the kind of education which is actually provided children through classroom instruction is dependent upon the way a school is organized and administered. The classification and promotion of pupils, the organization of the program for instruction, the selection and application of the curriculum and instructional materials, the administration of the library and the service agencies must all be shaped and evaluated in terms of the aims and functions of elementary education, and in the light of sound policies regarding the manner in which educative activities shall proceed. Such critical analysis and constant evaluation of administrative practices are not small tasks and command high types of professional knowledge on the part of those who would aim to do a thorough piece of work.

With reference to the teachers in his building, the elementary principal carries obligations for leadership more important even than those previously named. No matter how modern and scientific the organization, if the teaching is traditional, inefficient, and out of harmony with the accepted philosophies of education, the whole scheme fails. Teachers, too, must receive constant stimulation and encouragement to become real students of education. There will be constant need for a discussion and interpretation of educational objectives, the selection and application of curriculum materials, the measurement of pupil abilities, the diagnosis of pupil needs and difficulties, the adaptation of materials and methods to individual differences in children, the classification and promotion of pupils, as well as many other problems which daily confront teachers who are trying to apply modern educational science in classroom teaching. In fact, practically all the problems usually classified under the caption of "supervision of instruction" will arise from time to time to challenge the professional leadership of the principal. There is no implication here that the principal should have ready answers to all the questions which may arise. No one who knows the literature in education has ready-made solutions to all problems. Yet to exert the leadership which an elementary principal should manifest, one must be familiar with professional literature and be able to direct the interests of teachers to worth-while reading and study which may eventuate in teachers' meetings or conferences at which intelligent methods of handling the problems may be decided. In order to effect professional growth on the part of teachers, it is essential that the principal be recognized as a professional leader.

Another important phase of the principal's work is community leadership. The elementary principal, because of the respected position which he occupies in the minds of his school patrons, is strategically situated to interpret the work of the schools to the people, to mold public attitudes regarding the school, and to keep the public constantly informed and intelligent about the changes which are occurring in the practices of the school. One of the most beneficial results of continuous contact with the community immediately surrounding the school is the cooperation between teachers and parents. The work of the school can be much more effective if what teachers try to do in school receives not only approval but enthusiastic support from parents. Desirable community relationships are difficult to secure and to maintain if principals do not assume an active interest and demonstrate a positive leadership. The unique job of the principal was highlighted in the September, 1952, issue of *The School Executive*¹² and in the October, 1952, issue of *The National Elementary Principal*.¹³

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF PRINCIPALS

In view of the work which the principal of an elementary school must do, and the types of professional leadership which are expected of him, it seems pertinent to examine his training as one index of his qualifications for the position he holds. Some years ago it was common practice to promote a successful elementary-school teacher of many years' experience, but of rather limited educational preparation, to an elementary-school principalship. Partially as a result of this practice, many of those who were designated as "principals" were not qualified to assume the responsibilities which might have been assigned to them and which perhaps more logically belonged to them as the various phases of school administration developed. At any rate, as the organization for the administration and supervision of schools grew, the elementary principal was left in the background, with teaching and with a group of minor administrative and clerical duties as his major concern. The elementary principalship thus developed a professional status much inferior to that which it ought to command in view of its strategic position in the general scheme for school administration. In recent years, however, the superintendents as well as principals have recognized more fully the opportunities of the position, and there has been a demand for elementary principals adequately trained to render the professional services which in increasing numbers have been delegated to the position.

That incumbent principals and those anticipating the elementary principalship have been somewhat responsive to this need is indicated by the

¹² Vol. 72, No. 1, pp. 85-100.

¹³ Vol. 32, No. 2.

increasing levels of training of principals and the interest of principals in professional organizations. The Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A. was established in 1921. In 1952 the membership of the national organization was 11,046. There were also 37 state principals' associations, 167 sectional organizations for counties and districts, and 136 local city associations. The First Yearbook of the Department was issued in 1922. A large number of state and city principals' clubs have been organized. The bulletins and yearbooks issued by many of them are evidence of the interest of their members in the improvement of the professional status of the principal.

The preparation of principals, as measured by college courses taken and degrees received, has improved consistently. Various investigations made since 1926 have shown that year by year an increasing number of principals have secured Bachelor's and graduate degrees. In 1928 at least 50 per cent reported no degrees and the Master's degree was held by only 15 per cent of the supervising principals. By 1948 only 3 per cent held no college degree; 90 per cent had varying amounts of graduate college study; 64 per cent possessed the Master's degree; and 3 per cent held the Doctor's degree.¹⁴ Studies made since 1948 corroborate the 1948 data on the professional preparation of principals. Hogan and Norton used the official records of the Texas State Department of Education to secure data for their studies. Hogan's study covered the professional preparation and salaries of the 2406 elementary school principals so designated in the official reports.¹⁵ She found that for 1951-1952, 2.4 per cent held no degree; 42.9 per cent held only the Bachelor's degree, and 54.7 per cent possessed graduate degrees (five individuals held the Doctorate). Norton's study included only the 534 principals who according to the official records were in the principalship for the first time during 1951-1952. Questionnaires were returned by 212 of the 534 first-year principals. Apparently fairly high standards of preparation are required of new appointees; none were without degrees, and 64 per cent held a graduate degree (one person with a Doctorate).¹⁶

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION PROBLEMS

Degrees alone are not an adequate index of the professional preparation of principals. College degrees are merely one criterion of the expected competence of individuals. As far back as 1928 the Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A. strongly recommended the

¹⁴ *The Elementary-School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, op. cit., Ch. 1.

¹⁵ Odelle L. Hogan, *A Study of the Elementary School Principalship in Texas*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1952.

¹⁶ Maurice S. Norton, *The Vocational Careers and Preparation of Beginning Elementary School Principals in Texas*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1952.

Master's degree as the minimum amount of college preparation for the principalship. Apparently that goal is being reached at a rapid rate by principals in service and as a requirement for new appointees. Part of this progress has been made possible by the general upgrading of certification requirements for all teachers and administrators, and by the increased availability of college programs. In 1928, 85 per cent of preparation programs for principals required two years or less of college work as a prerequisite. Most of the programs were parts of undergraduate degree offerings. By 1947, 68 per cent of college programs were on the graduate level only, most of them leading to the Master's degree, with a few projected toward the Doctorate. In 1947, 10 programs out of 72 led to the Doctor's degree, whereas in 1928 only one in 48 led to the Doctorate.

A casual review of the preceding 15 chapters in this book will reveal an impressive picture of the many and varied areas of competence, and the high-level leadership, expected of elementary-school principals. It is folly to expect that caliber of performance from individuals who have not engaged in a rigorous preparation program. Institutions of higher learning need to recognize the need for special programs uniquely designed to enable prospective principals to acquire the wide array of competencies demanded of them on the job. An occasional course offered spasmodically by someone who has little background for it cannot serve the need. Too many colleges have a piecemeal program and too few institutions have a broadly designed and competently staffed program.

The need for thorough and well-planned preparation for elementary-school principals is being recognized by some colleges and universities. Examples of some good programs were given in the 1948 yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals. A few institutions have inaugurated a two-year graduate program leading to some type of a two-year graduate degree. This trend looks promising and may result in the kind of broad and thorough preparation demanded by the principalship. A supervised internship is usually a part of the two-year program. Interest in the internship has become widespread in recent years. The danger is that some folks may expect the internship to become the panacea for all the previous limitations of college preparation programs. With suitable previous classroom teaching experience and college study of school administration and supervision, the internship has valuable contributions to make. Without careful selection of interns with appropriate previous experience and training, and without careful selection of the school system in which the internship is to be done, the internship can easily degenerate into becoming all things to all people.

Regardless of the pre-appointment background, all principals need to grow on the job. Some of this in-service development can come through experience, professional reading, and participation in in-service activities for teachers. By themselves, these activities are not adequate to keep

principals pushing forward in their own administrative and supervisory roles. All principals should engage periodically in professional growth activities designed specifically for them. Not much is known at present about the relative value of different types of in-service activities uniquely appropriate to principals. Few institutions or school systems have tackled the problem of studying the in-service needs of principals. The usual extension or summer courses are general in nature and do not focus specifically upon the needs of a given principal, or group of principals, in a given situation. Considerable promise of the improvement of in-service activities for principals lies in the practice of some school systems that have developed an organized plan for the in-service development of their own principals. In some instances a study of local needs and problems is followed by a three-weeks' to six-weeks' specially designed summer program at a conveniently situated university, the details having been worked out by prior arrangement with the university. In other cases the university instructor is brought to the school system for a comparable summer period. In still other situations the study program moves forward through regularly scheduled sessions during the school year, with or without the assistance of a university instructor. Such arrangements are feasible for the larger school systems, or for a group of school systems within a 50- to 75-mile radius; it leaves untouched the large number of principals in the smaller communities and in sparsely settled areas. Other devices will have to be explored to reach the latter group of principals.

Colleges also have their problems as they strive to provide courses, workshops, and consultative services. Few colleges can afford to employ staff and to offer courses unless there is enough clientele to justify the cost. There is also the problem of finding enough properly qualified persons to staff college programs. In many cases the college president feels that his institution should offer the complete variety of courses requested by any of the students. Invariably the result is a scattered array of poorly staffed courses with small enrollments. College students are partially to blame for the position taken by college administrators; small groups of students will pressure the administration for special courses which they alone desire, not realizing the broader issues involved. Students need to realize that every institution cannot offer everything, and that it is better to have different institutions specialize in providing top-quality programs in different fields. This principle of institutional differentiation has been accepted universally in such fields as law, medicine, dentistry, and engineering. Today no one expects every liberal arts college or teachers college to offer a degree program in law, medicine, pharmacy, dentistry, or engineering. Persons who want to specialize in these fields merely accept the fact that they must go to a place where the desired specialized program is available. But such is not the case with regard to preparation for the principalship. Students, and the public to some extent, expect every college in the land to

prepare persons for the principalship. No doubt the diluted programs of the past will continue until we recognize that preparation for the principalship is as important and as unique as preparation for any one of the other professions, and that high-quality programs cannot be achieved until institutional differentiation is accepted, and programs developed on that basis.

LOCAL STANDARDS FOR SELECTION AND APPOINTMENT

For years some school systems, mostly in the larger cities, have given some recognition to the fact that success in the principalship required special preparation. In 1947 information on local practices in the selection and appointment was obtained by questionnaire from 689 city and town superintendents of schools.¹⁷ Only 30 of the replies presented evidence of extensive, systematic procedures; 33 others listed a number of specific techniques followed, but did not claim that they had more than a partly systemized procedure. The tabulation of the standards and criteria used in local school systems in selecting elementary-school principals revealed the following facts: 54.1 per cent preferred either sex, 10 per cent preferred women, and 35.9 per cent preferred men; 35.4 per cent had no maximum age for initial appointment, 22.7 per cent held the maximum age between 50 and 59 years, and 33.2 per cent set the limit between 40 and 49 years; 83.5 per cent required previous experience in educational work of some sort, 82.6 per cent required experience in classroom teaching, and 67.2 per cent required elementary-school classroom teaching experience; the range in amount of classroom teaching required was from zero (17.4 per cent) to 11 years, the most common specification being five years or less; the Master's degree was specified in 29.9 per cent of the replies and the Bachelor's degree in 59.9 per cent; 30 per cent required no special preparation; and examinations of various types were used in most of the 30 systematic plans and in about half of the partly systematized plans. In all cases the more or less objective requirements previously listed are supplemented with an appraisal of personal qualities.

Except in the largest cities in which local standards have had official status for a long period of years, and have been revised and improved from time to time, the general picture of local standards for selection and appointment is meager, incoherent, and discouraging. Further evidence to substantiate the need for the improvement of local standards will be presented in the subsequent discussion of recruitment problems. It is really at the local level that the quality of leadership for elementary education is determined. Unless local standards for the selection of principals are high, the whole program for the improvement of elementary education is stymied. The following quotation from the 1948 yearbook of the Depart-

¹⁷ *The Elementary-School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, op. cit., Ch. 10.

ment of Elementary School Principals is very appropriate in highlighting the issue.¹⁸

If we think of the arch as symbolic of the efforts being made to build an improved status for the elementary-school principalship, then the *keystone* of the arch is the local superintendent of schools. In most communities the superintendent (and his staff) nominate those who are to be appointed to the principalship. Consequently, the standards and ideals maintained by the superintendent largely determine the professional quality of the principalship.

The interest, preparation, and enthusiasm of those chosen to be principals set the tone of performance and morale within the school system. These local standards are watched, not only by those who aspire to be principals, but also by those who direct professional preparation programs in the teachers colleges and universities. Thus, when superintendents maintain low and unsystematic local standards, they provide a crumbling keystone which may destroy all efforts to build the principalship upon ever higher levels of professional preparation and skill. When the superintendent himself maintains high standards, "the arch of improvement" can be reared with some assurance that it will not tumble into the dust.

The editorial committee for the 1948 yearbook made the following recommendations which could well serve as a guide to the development of local policy. These recommendations are:¹⁹

1. That every school system should have a written statement of the basic personal and professional standards to be required of all persons appointed to the principalship. These standards should be formulated by the superintendent and his staff in cooperation with local principals' organizations.

2. That these standards should require at least two years of successful elementary-school experience, part of which includes direct classroom responsibilities.

3. That the professional preparation should not be less than the Master's degree including special preparation in educational philosophy, administration and supervision of elementary schools, child psychology and development, curriculum, and instructional methods.

4. That in selecting new principals discriminations should not be made on the basis of sex, residence, or other irrelevant factors. However, it is to be hoped that future local standards for the principalship will be so clearly stated and so courageously applied that the proportion of the young people who undertake the principalship as a life career will be greatly increased.

5. That there should be, in addition to physical examinations, a series of tests of emotional stability, intelligence, professional knowledge, and cultural interests. The minimum points on these tests, below which no appointments will be made, should be set in cooperation with the local principals' association.

6. That likely candidates for the principalship should be interviewed by committees of principals as well as by the superintendent and his staff. These committees should have authority to indicate those candidates who, on the basis of the evidence, are qualified for listing in the records from which the superintendent makes his appointments.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 133.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 148-149.

STATE CERTIFICATION PROBLEMS

The importance attached to the elementary-school principalship is evidenced by the fact that an increasing number of states have begun to issue, and in some instances to require, special certificates of those who wish to be principals of elementary schools. By 1948 more than half of the states required elementary-school principals to hold a clearly defined special certificate in addition to a typical classroom teacher's certificate.²⁰ In seven other states (Georgia, Missouri, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Texas, and West Virginia) an elementary-school principals' certificate is issued by the state department of education, even though its use is not mandatory as a prerequisite for appointment to such a position.

The problems which lie ahead are fourfold. In some states there is doubt as to the legal status of the principal. It is not certain whether he is classified as a teacher, and thus eligible for the tenure, sick leave, and retirement benefits available to teachers. Or, there may be uncertainty as to whether he is classified as a public officer or as an employee.²¹ The second problem involves the extension of the special certificate idea to states which now do not have such provisions. It is not likely that high standards for the principalship will develop in a state unless there is an active state principals' association to push the issue. One of the best ways to launch a state-wide program for the improvement of elementary schools is for the principals to work for higher professional standards for themselves.

There is more agreement on the advisability of a special certificate for elementary-school principals than there is on the requirements for such a certificate. For many of the existing state certificates the requirements have been watered down so much as to be relatively meaningless. The urge has been to keep the requirements sufficiently general so that almost anyone from any other field of education could easily qualify for the elementary-school principal's certificate. Obviously there is wisdom in maintaining flexibility in the types of positions in education for which certified personnel may qualify, but when the gate is left so wide open that special certificates become meaningless, the net result is a sabotaging of elementary education. Persons who wish to become elementary-school principals ought to have enough background in child psychology and elementary-school methods and materials to give real instructional leadership to teachers. Unless there is genuine competence in the area of curriculum and instruction, the leadership role of the principal is negligible.

The Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A. made

²⁰ The details of these requirements, by states, are shown in *The Elementary-School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, *op. cit.*, pp. 301-310.

²¹ For further details on this issue, see "The Legal Status of the Public School Teacher," *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 25 (April, 1947).

the following recommendation regarding requirements for a special principal's certificate: ²²

That every state should require, in addition to the regular teaching certificate, an elementary-school principal's certificate specifying specialized professional preparation of not less than the Master's degree. The continuance of the principal's certificate should be based upon evidence of professional growth submitted at five-year intervals.

The Texas Association of School Administrators was more specific in its recommendations for the special certificate for elementary-school principals. The proposed requirements were: ²³

- a. Possession of a valid elementary-school teacher's certificate.
- b. Graduation from a standard four-year college or university, and, in addition, the completion of the requirements for the Master's degree, or the equivalent in graduate courses.
- c. A minimum of fifteen semester hours of credit in graduate courses in elementary education, including a minimum of two semester hours in each of the following fields: curriculum, supervision, administration, and child study.
- d. At least two years of full-time teaching experience in an elementary school.
- e. Validity: This certificate is valid for a ten-year period from the date of issue, and is renewable for ten-year periods upon evidence of the completion of at least six semester hours of graduate study in the field of elementary education within the three years immediately preceding the date of renewal.

The trend toward two-year graduate programs for all kinds of administrative and supervisory leaders in the schools poses new issues regarding requirements for special principals' certificates. Should elementary-school principals aim for a two-level certification plan in which the initial certificate calls for requirements such as those previously cited, followed by an advanced certificate based upon additional graduate study and successful experience as a principal? What should be the content of the second year of graduate study? What criteria shall be used to judge the degree of success in a principalship? These are issues which cannot be answered satisfactorily at present. They should constitute study topics for state principals' associations.

There is growing sentiment in favor of doing away with life certificates for all classes of educational workers. The idea is that a certificate should lapse if the person drops out of teaching for a period of years, and that some refresher work should be undertaken before the certificate is reinstated. In some states at present the special certificate for principals is

²² *The Elementary-School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, op. cit., p. 164.

²³ Texas Association of School Administrators, *Elementary Education—Goals for 1957*, 1947 Yearbook, pp. 7-8.

issued for a specified number of years, renewable at regular intervals if certain conditions have been met. Among the conditions commonly suggested is evidence of continued professional growth. How is professional growth to be measured? Shall it consist only of credit for additional college courses? Can there be found a satisfactory way of measuring objectively other activities or evidences of professional growth? What about leadership roles in professional organizations, curriculum revision programs, research studies, and published articles or books? If the idea of a limited life span for special certificates is valid, local principals' groups should engage themselves in developing satisfactory methods for assaying the conditions upon which certificate renewal is to be based. Do the self-appraisal instruments devised by certain groups hold promise for use as a device for evaluating the degree of success in the principalship? ²⁴

RECRUITMENT PROBLEMS

Efforts directed at the improvement of professional preparation and state certification requirements will result in "much ado about nothing" unless the recruitment problem can be solved. Colleges cannot afford to offer preparation programs unless there are students to be taught. The need for persons to be prepared to take elementary-school principalships is large, but the number of experienced elementary-school teachers engaging in pre-appointment preparation is small. No nation-wide data are available regarding the number of new elementary-school principals appointed each year, but if studies made in Texas are representative, the number of new elementary-school principals required each year is large. By using the official records of the Texas State Department of Education, Huff found that for the school year 1949-1950 Texas schools employed 467 beginning elementary-school principals.²⁵ Norton, using the same source for his data, found that in 1951-1952 there appeared to be 534 beginning elementary principals in Texas.²⁶ The total number of persons in Texas schools classified as elementary-school principals in 1951-1952 was 2406. The situation may be different in other states, but it is likely that the need is extensive everywhere.

Present recruitment practices leave much to be desired. In its survey made during 1946-1947, the Department of Elementary School Principals found that superintendents depend primarily upon "the old eagle eye" to discover those members of the local staff who might make good principals.

²⁴ Don C. Kiesler, "The Development of a Principal 'Self-Appraisal' Program," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 113 (September, 1946), p. 48; James B. Enochs, "Elementary-School Administrators Evaluate Themselves," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 51 (September, 1950), pp. 15-21.

²⁵ Leslie B. Huff, *A Survey of the Problems of Beginning Elementary School Principals*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1950.

²⁶ Norton, *op. cit.*

This is the predominant procedure followed in cities below 100,000 in population. When asked to report the *major* method of recruitment used, only 373 of the 689 superintendents replied; but 283 of the 373 responses indicated "observation by the superintendent" as the major procedure. Although 41 per cent of the superintendents requested colleges to supply the names of potential candidates, only 9 per cent said that they used college recommendations as a major procedure.²⁷ Franklin's 1951 survey of recruitment practices in 294 school systems of all sizes in Texas corroborated the findings of the national survey previously mentioned.²⁸ Only in the larger cities, mostly those above 30,000 in population, do the school systems maintain an active roster of possible candidates. Superintendents in smaller school systems are likely to think, "I so rarely appoint new principals that I do not need a list." Yet, schools in small communities are in need of good principals just as much as schools in larger cities, and, when vacancies occur, the superintendent literally "beats the bushes" for a new principal. The colleges are of little help to him because few teachers are qualifying themselves in anticipation of principalship appointments.

The unsatisfactory by-product of the inadequate and unsystematic recruitment procedures is evident in the meager qualifications possessed by many who are appointed to elementary-school principalships. Berry's study of the vocational careers of 418 elementary-school principals in Texas, Oklahoma, and Louisiana revealed that only 32 per cent of them had had any experience in the elementary school prior to their initial appointment as principal; 10 per cent had gone directly to an elementary-school principalship without prior educational experience of any kind; and 58 per cent had had previous school experience but none at the elementary-school level.²⁹ A tabulation of the types of positions held immediately preceding their initial appointment to an elementary-school principalship showed that 26 per cent had come from secondary-school teaching, administrative, or coaching positions, 23 per cent from elementary-school teaching positions, 21 per cent from other administrative positions, 17 per cent from non-school jobs and directly from college, 13 per cent from miscellaneous school positions. Out of the 418 principals included in the study, 242 reported the dates of their initial appointments as principals and the dates on which various college credits were received. Of the 242, 39 per cent had earned no college credits in general school administration and supervision courses, 66 per cent had received no college credit in courses in elementary-school administration and supervision,

²⁷ *The Elementary-School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, op. cit., pp. 133-135.

²⁸ James T. Franklin, *Recruitment Procedures and Qualifications for Appointment of Elementary School Principals in Selected Texas Public School Systems*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Texas, 1951.

²⁹ L. A. Berry, *The Vocational Careers of Elementary School Principals*, unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Texas, 1952.

and 27 per cent had received fewer than seven semester hours of college credit in the latter field.

Berry's study included all principals regardless of length of tenure in the principalship. Norton's study was more definitive in nature but narrower in scope. Norton interrogated only "first year" elementary-school principals in Texas. He received replies from 212 of the 534 persons who were identified as beginning principals in 1951-1952.⁸⁰ The 212 replies showed that 5.3 per cent had gone directly to a principalship without prior school experience of any kind; 37.2 per cent moved to a principalship from an elementary-school teaching position; 12.2 per cent had previously engaged in other school positions in addition to elementary-school teaching; 13.2 per cent had come from high-school teaching or coaching positions; and 31.8 per cent had come from other school administrative or teaching positions. In this group 94.3 per cent had earned some college work in general school administration and supervision courses, although 55.8 per cent had earned only three semester hours of credit; 50.3 per cent had had a college course in "Elementary School Organization and Administration" and 39.1 per cent had had a course in "Elementary School Supervision"; and 90.6 per cent had had at least one course in elementary-school curriculum and methods. Norton's findings present a better picture of pre-appointment preparation than do Berry's findings. The difference may be due to a general improvement in the requirements superintendents expect of new elementary-school principals, but it is more likely that in Texas the differences are the result of a state department regulation that in accredited schools all persons assigned to elementary-school grades must have at least 12 semester hours in elementary education.

The preceding discussion has shown that the recruitment situation is not very good. Improvement can be sought along several lines. Colleges can publicize the opportunities in the principalship to their senior majors in elementary education. Berry found that only 10 per cent of the 418 principals had chosen school administration as a vocational career by the end of their senior year in college; 24 per cent had made that choice during the Master's degree program; and only 23 per cent had chosen the elementary-school principalship as a career during their Master's degree work. Norton's findings were comparable to those reported by Berry, except that in the latter study 40 per cent had chosen school administration as a career during the Master's degree program, but only 10 per cent had decided upon the elementary-school principalship.

State principals' associations are strategically situated to attack the recruitment problem. They can launch state-wide campaigns whereby colleges and school superintendents become alerted to the shortage of well-qualified elementary-school principals, the methods whereby promising candidates may be urged to undertake preparation programs, and the steps

⁸⁰ Norton, *op. cit.*

that can be taken to establish appropriate local standards for the selection and appointment of elementary-school principals. State principals' associations can, and should, take the leadership in fostering various projects which will result in the improvement of elementary education.

THE ECONOMIC STATUS OF PRINCIPALS

Those interested in qualifying themselves properly for the elementary-school principalship may desire to investigate the economic status of elementary principals. If the principalship is going to command the most competent and well-trained men and women in the profession, it is quite essential that the economic rewards of the position be adequate to attract the desired persons. Although the advantages of a position and the rewards it offers to an individual cannot be measured entirely by money income, it is important that the money income be sufficient to warrant the expenditures for preparation and to enable the individual to maintain a social and economic status commensurate with the position.

In 1952-1953 the salaries of teaching principals in elementary schools ranged from less than \$2400 to about \$7300 (Tables 42 and 43). Their median salaries ranged from \$3483 in Group VI cities to \$5000 in Group I cities. Salaries for supervising principals were considerably better; the median salary of supervising principals in Group VI cities was \$4388, whereas in Group I districts the median reached \$7305. In all except Group I cities, the median salaries of teaching principals in 1952-1953 were from 12 to 15 per cent higher than the median salaries of classroom teachers (Table 44). The index relationship between the median salaries of classroom teachers and those of supervising principals ranged from 140.7 in Group VI cities to 151.8 in Group II cities. The variations in these relationships, as well as the variations in salaries paid individual principals, depend upon a variety of factors, such as local policies, cost of living, size of school units, the duties assigned to principals, and the professional preparation and experience of the principal.

Tables 44 and 45 were prepared to show certain trends in the salary status of principals. The steady rise in living costs since the middle 1930's resulted in unprecedented nation-wide campaigns to bring equitable salaries to public-school personnel, especially teachers. Between 1930-1931 and 1950-1951 elementary-school classroom teachers' median salaries increased by 73.3 per cent in Group I cities to 130.9 per cent in Group VI cities. During the same period the median salaries of supervising elementary-school principals increased from 51.9 per cent in Group I to 115.8 per cent in Group VI cities. Using the period from 1935 to 1939 as a base, and giving the purchasing power of the dollar during this period an index value of 100, the cost of living increased 90 per cent between 1935-1939 and 1953. In terms of the decrease in the purchasing power of the dollar,

classroom teachers in Group III, IV, V, and VI cities have had salary increases between 1930-1931 and 1950-1951 comparable to the increase in cost of living. This does not hold true for any of the administrative personnel listed in Table 45 or for classroom teachers in elementary schools in Group I and II cities. The salary differentials favoring administrative personnel have been decreasing throughout the 20-year period (Tables 44 and 45). The largest proportional losses have been taken by school superintendents; next in order of diminishing ratio between their salaries and those of classroom teachers are high-school principals, junior-high-school principals, and supervising elementary-school principals.

The general trend of the salary increase movement has been to diminish the gap between the salaries of teachers and those of administrators and supervisors. Not all of the reasons for this shift are known. No doubt the rapid increase in the professional qualifications of teachers has tended to bring teachers' qualifications closer to those of administrators. Another factor has been the recognition of the fact that teachers' salaries used to be disgracefully low, and the resulting movement to provide every teacher with at least an acceptable living wage. Although not consistent, there has been a marked trend between 1931 and 1951 to reduce the gap between the median salaries of elementary-school principals and secondary-school principals.

TABLE 44: Median Salaries Paid Elementary-School Principals and Index Relationship to Salaries of Classroom Teachers, 1942-1943 and 1952-1953 *

POPULATION GROUPS †	TEACHING PRINCIPALS		SUPERVISING PRINCIPALS	
	1942-1943	1952-1953	1942-1943	1952-1953
Group I				
Median salary	\$2,402	\$5,000	\$3,473	\$7,305
Index ‡	99.0	103.8	143.0	151.7
Group II				
Median salary	\$2,056	\$4,274	\$2,612	\$5,703
Index	118.0	113.8	149.0	151.8
Group III				
Median salary	\$1,794	\$4,231	\$2,365	\$5,316
Index	117.0	114.9	155.0	144.4
Group IV				
Median salary	\$1,610	\$3,936	\$2,191	\$4,900
Index	117.0	114.5	159.0	142.6
Group V				
Median salary	\$1,483	\$3,586	\$1,995	\$4,564
Index	118.0	112.4	159.0	143.1
Group VI				
Median salary	—	\$3,483	—	\$4,388
Index	—	111.7	—	140.7

* Adapted from "Salaries of City School Employees, 1942-43," *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 21, No. 1 (February, 1943); and *The National Elementary Principal*, Vol. 32, No. 6 (May, 1953), p. 27.

† Population groups: I, over 500,000; II, 100,000-500,000; III, 30,000-100,000; IV, 10,000-30,000; V, 5,000-10,000; and VI, 2,500-5,000.

‡ Index of relationship: median teacher's salary equals 100.

TABLE 45: Index Relationships of Median Salaries of Selected Administrative Personnel in Urban School Districts, 1930-1931 and 1950-1951 *

PERSONNEL	POPULATION GROUP †					
	I		III		VI	
	1930-31	1950-51	1930-31	1950-51	1930-31	1950-51
Superintendents of schools . .	627	439	420	284	307	206
Supervisors—elementary . . .	—	149	—	154	—	159
Principals:						
Teaching elementary	—	113	125	113	121	112
Supervising elementary . . .	172	151	164	143	187	151
Junior-high-school	206	171	208	163	153	132
High-school	236	194	266	185	207	156

* Adapted from "Salaries and Salary Schedules of City-School Employees, 1950-51," *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 29, No. 2 (April, 1951), pp. 75-76.

† See footnote †, Table 44.

SALARY SCHEDULES

The trend during the past 40 years has been for more and more school systems to pay salaries according to some kind of a definite salary schedule. Salary schedules for classroom teachers were the first to be developed. Most of the earlier schedules for teachers provided higher salaries for secondary-school teachers than for elementary-school teachers. As the professional preparation of elementary and secondary teachers became comparable, single salary schedules began to appear. When the N.E.A. first went on record, in 1921, in favor of a single schedule of salaries for elementary-school teachers and secondary-school teachers of equal qualifications, only a handful of pioneering school systems had adopted schedules of this type. The rate of adoption of the single salary schedule for teachers may be seen in the following tabulation.

	PERCENTAGE HAVING SINGLE SALARY SCHEDULE IN:			
	1941	1944	1948	1951
a. 107 school systems in cities over 100,000 in population ³¹	34	58	94	98.2
b. 200 school systems in cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population ³²	—	53	96	98.0

³¹ N.E.A., Research Division and American Association of School Administrators, "Teachers' Salary Schedules in 107 School Systems in Cities over 100,000 in Population, 1950-51," *Educational Research Service*, Circular No. 2 (February, 1951), p. 3.

³² N.E.A., Research Division and American Association of School Administrators, "Teachers' Salary Schedules in 200 School Systems in Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in Population, 1950-51," *Educational Research Service*, Circular No. 1 (January, 1951), p. 3.

TABLE 46: Scheduling of Principals' Salaries in 452 Single Salary Schedules *

SCHEDULE PROVISION	PER CENT OF SCHEDULES HAVING THE PROVISION SHOWN					Total (452 Sched- ules)
	Group I (49 Sched- ules)	Group II (91 Sched- ules)	Group III (143 Sched- ules)	Group IV (104 Sched- ules)	Group V (65 Sched- ules)	
1. Total number of schedules making some reference to principals' salaries	81.6%	57.1%	53.1%	43.2%	33.8%	52.2%
2. School size reported as a factor in determining salary of elementary-school principals:						
School size determined by number of pupils	40.8%	3.3%	1.4%	2.9%	1.5%	6.4%
School size determined by number of teachers	18.4	13.2	9.1	1.9	7.7	9.1
School size determined by number of rooms	4.1	3.3	3.5	3.8	0.0	3.1
Total indicating school size as a factor	63.3%	19.8%	14.0%	8.6%	9.2%	18.6%
3. Professional preparation reported as a factor in determining salary of principals (does not include schedules where principals' salaries are scheduled as a differential above the basic salary schedule for teachers)	42.9%	22.0%	9.8%	2.9%	6.2%	13.7%
4. Elementary and secondary principals paid the same, for schools of like size	8.2	4.4	2.8	1.9	3.0	3.5
5. Extra pay provided for principals supervising more than one building	8.2	4.4	2.1	0.0	0.0	2.4

* From "Analysis of Single Salary Schedules," *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 25, No. 3 (October, 1947), p. 105.

By 1952 official salary schedules were in operation in 91 per cent of 1615 school systems in cities of all sizes; the percentage having salary schedules ranged from 82 in cities of 2500 to 4999 population to 100 in cities with populations of 100,000 and over.³³ In 18 per cent of cities of all sizes having salary schedules, the schedules were those prescribed by law as minimum state salary schedules. The state schedules were most prominent in the smaller school systems.

³³ "Teacher Personnel Procedures, 1950-51: Employment Conditions in Service," *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 30, No. 2 (April, 1952), p. 38.

Salary schedules for principals were much slower in developing than salary schedules for teachers.³⁴ Even today there is some disagreement on the advisability of having a salary schedule for principals in spite of the increasing acceptance of the idea and the increasing number of school systems which are adopting such schedules. An analysis of 452 of the single salary schedules in vogue in 1947 in school systems of all sizes revealed the data shown in Table 46. A more detailed analysis of 182 of the schedules produced the relationships shown in Table 47. The authors of the study made these observations:³⁵

1. For the larger cities (Groups I and II), the typical method of scheduling salaries for elementary-school principals was to fix minimum and maximum salaries; for the smaller cities (Groups III-V), the typical method was to provide a differential above the salary paid to classroom teachers.

2. Salaries of junior and senior high-school principals were more likely to be fixed on a definite minimum and maximum basis than by the use of a differential.

3. In the larger cities, particularly in Group I, the salaries of elementary-school principals usually were varied according to the size of school. School size was typically measured in terms of average daily attendance but number of teachers and number of rooms were also used for grouping elementary schools for salary purposes. The number of groups according to size was about equally likely to be two groups, three groups, or four groups. Five groups were not unusual and a few schedules added some amount for each additional teacher supervised.

Some broad grouping of schools into small and large, or into Groups I, II, and III, on a combination of factors, including size and community problems, probably is desirable in many communities. Much is to be said, however, for administrative planning that avoids both the very small and the very large school, and that recognizes the principalship as a position of community leadership that is important in itself, regardless of school size.

When size of salary is closely adjusted to size of school the practice is likely to develop of moving up every principal one notch when a vacancy occurs in a large school. It would seem that a better means of providing promotional opportunities for principals is to provide increments in the principals' schedule to recognize the value of added experience. The primary aim should be to enhance the professional status of the principal as a community and educational leader and to encourage permanence in a given community rather than constant shifting of location.

4. Where the salary of principals was scheduled as a differential above the salary as teacher, only a few schedules provided any recognition for experience as principal; thus teachers who reach the teachers' maximum before promotion to the principalship would receive the maximum salary possible as principal during the first year of service as principal. It would seem desirable to set up the principal's salary in such a way as to give some recognition for experience,

³⁴ N.E.A., Research Division and American Association of School Administrators, "Basic Salary Schedules for Principals in Regular Day Schools and Special Schools in 68 School Systems in Cities over 100,000 in Population, 1946-47," *Educational Research Service*, Circular No. 5 (1947).

³⁵ "Analysis of Single Salary Schedules," *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 25, No. 3 (October, 1947), pp. 101-105.

TABLE 47: Relationships of Maximum Salary Scheduled for Certain Administrative and Supervisory Positions to Maximum Salary of the Five-Year (M. A.) Salary Class for Regular Classroom Teachers, 182 Single Salary Schedules *

POPULATION GROUP AND MEASURE OF RELATIONSHIP	PRINCIPALS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS			Index of relationship (five-year teacher maximum equals 100.0)						
	<i>No Salary Differ- ence due to Size of School</i>	<i>Small Schools</i>	<i>Largest School</i>	PRINCIPALS OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS	PRINCIPALS OF SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS	HIGH- SCHOOL ASSIST- ANT PRINCIPALS	HIGH- SCHOOL HEADS OF DEPART- MENTS	SUPER- VISORS	DIREC- TORS	ASSIST- ANT SUPERIN- TEND- ENTS
Highest differential observed:										
Group I	181.8	146.9	240.0	190.6	240.0	170.0	120.0	159.6	200.0	262.5
Group II	194.2	141.2	176.5	163.9	229.2	153.8	116.4	140.0	180.3	236.1
Group III	136.7	123.1	146.7	160.0	190.9	136.7	115.2	144.0	140.7	...
Group IV	142.9	135.2	131.7	160.4	185.7	112.9	112.9	135.2	124.4	...
Group V	126.3	136.4	126.3	154.5	106.5
Median relationship:										
Group I	145.0	120.0	136.9	153.3	167.2	128.1	107.9	128.1	150.0	217.5
Group II	122.9	121.0	127.5	137.0	166.4	125.0	106.9	113.6	131.7	180.0
Group III	112.5	115.6	123.0	140.0	163.6	117.5	105.7	111.7	123.3
Group IV	112.5	122.5	115.0	136.7	150.0	...	105.8	113.0
Group V	107.5	116.3	116.3	127.5
Lowest differential observed:										
Group I	120.5	100.0	111.5	136.7	111.5	104.7	103.6	109.1	120.5	181.8
Group II	106.3	107.9	108.0	114.6	125.0	105.7	103.1	102.9	103.5	152.9
Group III	104.0	107.1	107.4	114.3	130.3	106.9	101.9	105.7	108.1
Group IV	100.0	107.1	105.3	123.5	108.8	104.0	101.1	103.3	112.9
Group V	104.5	110.0	110.0	116.7	104.0

* From "Analysis of Single Salary Schedules," *Research Bulletin*, N.E.A., Vol. 25, No. 3 (October, 1947), p. 104.

either thru providing a definite minimum and maximum with increments, or by varying the amount of the differential to recognize years of service in the principalship.

5. The extension of the single salary schedule to the principalship was noted in a few schedules—4 percent—where elementary and secondary principals were paid the same, for schools of like size.

6. The extra burden imposed by supervision of two separate school buildings was recognized in a small group of schedules, in Groups I-III, which provided from \$100 to \$300 additional for the supervision of more than one building.

A later study of salary schedules for principals, made in 1952, covered only the 18 school systems in Group I cities and 67 of the 90 school systems in Group II cities.³⁰ Elementary-school principals were covered by a salary schedule in all 85 of the schedules analyzed; two school systems did not have a schedule for junior-high-school principals and four systems had no schedule for senior-high-school principals. Six bases for salary determination within the schedules were identified. These were: (a) school level only (elementary, junior high, or senior high; salaries uniform within level, no differential for preparation or school size), (b) size of school (number of pupils or number of teachers), (c) level of preparation, (d) level of preparation and size of school, (e) classroom teachers' schedule with differential based on size of school or other factors, and (f) combination of factors (school size, service performed, type of community served). Bases (d) and (e) were the ones most commonly used; 43.4 per cent of the schedules used (d) and 22.4 per cent used (e).

In 1949 six school systems in cities over 100,000 in population had single salary schedules for elementary-school principals and secondary-school principals. By 1952 the number of school systems in this population group having single salary schedules for principals had reached 15. These school systems were: Group I—Baltimore, Md.; and Houston, Texas; Group II—Little Rock, Ark.; Oakland, Cal.; Hartford, Conn.; Jacksonville, Fla.; Miami, Fla.; Tampa, Fla.; Evansville, Ind.; Louisville, Ky.; Baton Rouge, La.; Springfield, Mass.; Elizabeth, N. J.; Reading, Pa.; and Chattanooga, Tenn.

Three important issues exist regarding salary schedules for principals. The first issue, whether there should be a schedule for principals, is being answered in the affirmative by the adoption and retention of schedules for principals in an increasing proportion of school systems. Once a salary schedule for principals is inaugurated, the advantages become so evident that few school systems later abandon the schedule idea. In time, salary schedules for principals will be as firmly established as salary schedules for teachers. The second issue is whether there should be a single or separate

³⁰ N.E.A., Research Division and American Association of School Administrators, "Salary Schedules for Principals," *Educational Research Service*, Circular No. 3 (March, 1952).

schedule for elementary-school principals and secondary-school principals. As elementary-school principals are accorded, and demonstrate, significant administrative and supervisory leadership, and become key persons in the administrative team, there will be a greater tendency to recognize their roles as comparable to other principals in the system, and hence the tendency toward a single schedule for all principals. The achievement of a single schedule for all principals in 15 school systems is an indication of what the trend in the future will be.

TABLE 48: Suggested Salary Schedule for Elementary-School Principals *

YEARS OF EXPERIENCE AS PRINCIPAL	TEACHING PRINCIPALS		SUPERVISING PRINCIPALS			
	Class A Enrolment Below 200 M.A.	Class B Enrolment Above 200 M.A.	Class C Enrolment Below 800 M.A.	Class D Enrolment Below 800 Ph.D.	Class E Enrolment Over 800 M.A.	Class F Enrolment Over 800 Ph.D.
1	\$4000	\$4500	\$5000	\$5500	\$6000	\$6500
2	4250	4750	5250	5750	6250	6750
3	4500	5000	5500	6000	6500	7000
4	4750	5250	5750	6250	6750	7250
5	5000	5500	6000	6500	7000	7500
6	5250	5750	6250	6750	7250	7750
7	5500	6000	6500	7000	7500	8000
8	5750	6250	6750	7250	7750	8250
9	6500	7000	7500	8000	8500
10	7250	7750	8250	8750
11	7500	8000	8500	9000
12	8250	8750	9250
13	9000	9500
14	9750

Conditions: No new principals should be appointed with less than the Master's degree in professional preparation. Principals in service with less than Master's degrees should be placed on a salary step by the method of placement that is followed for classroom teachers and should advance by \$250 increments to a salary \$500 lower than the maximum salary for principals with Master's degrees.

At the end of each five years principals must present evidence of professional growth in order to advance to the next increment on the salary schedule and in order to remain at the maximum salary.

Principals appointed from within the system should receive either (a) the beginning salary of the new salary class or (b) the salary step that will be at least one full increment on the new salary class above the salary that would have been received without the promotion, whichever is larger.

Proposed annual salaries are for full calendar-year employment. Reduce by one-sixth for 10-month service.

* From *The Elementary-School Principalship—Today and Tomorrow*, Twenty-seventh Yearbook (Washington, Department of Elementary School Principals of the N.E.A., 1948), p. 37.

The third issue relates to the type of schedule and the bases for determining an individual's placement on the schedule. Once a school system has established the requirements for initial appointment to the different

types of principalships, it appears that additional professional preparation and experience in the principalship should be the major bases. At present most schedules provide a differential based on size of school. It is doubtful whether this is a defensible criterion. Each principal has only 24 hours in each day and only seven days in each week. When the school gets too large for one person to manage, assistant principals, clerks, counsellors, among others, are added to the staff. Although it has not been demonstrated that administrative problems grow in number, or in difficulty, as school size increases, or whether it takes a more capable person to run a large school well than to do equally well in a small school, the idea of a salary differential based on school size has become so firmly accepted that it probably will take many years to modify thought and practice. If school size is retained as a base, the number of enrollment groups should be kept small, and the salary differentials between different sized schools should be kept small. Small differentials in these two areas will tend to induce principals to build a career in a given school and reduce the scramble to be moved when a vacancy occurs in a larger school.

TABLE 49: Proposed Salary Schedule, Full-time Supervising Principals *

A. BACHELOR'S DEGREE

<i>Experience</i>	<i>School Size To 300 ADA</i>	<i>School Size 301-599 ADA</i>	<i>School Size 600 ADA-Up</i>
0			
1			
2			
3	Teacher's Base Salary x 150%	Teacher's Base Salary x 155%	Teacher's Base Salary x 160%
4	Base x 150%	Base x 155%	Base x 160%
5	Base x 150%	Base x 155%	Base x 160%
6	Base x 150%	Base x 155%	Base x 160%
7	Base x 150%	Base x 155%	Base x 160%
8	Base x 150%	Base x 155%	Base x 160%
9	Base x 150%	Base x 155%	Base x 160%
10	Base x 150%	Base x 155%	Base x 160%
11	Base x 150%	Base x 155%	Base x 160%
12	Base x 150%	Base x 155%	Base x 160%
13	Base x 150%	Base x 155%	Base x 160%
14	Base x 150%	Base x 155%	Base x 160%
15	Base x 150%	Base x 155%	Base x 160%
16	Base x 150%	Base x 155%	Base x 160%
17	Base x 150%	Base x 155%	Base x 160%
18	Base x 150%	Base x 155%	Base x 160%
19	Base x 150%	Base x 155%	Base x 160%
20	Base x 150%	Base x 155%	Base x 160%

- B.** Allow an additional experience increment (\$60) for each year of experience as a *full-time* principal, not to exceed ten (10) such increments. Total additional annual salary which is possible to allow under this section of the formula is \$600.

* From Bascom Hayes, *The Status of Texas Elementary School Principals—Salary Schedules, Certification, Recruitment, and Pre-Service Preparation*, Service Bulletin, Texas Elementary Principals and Supervisors Association (1953), p. 15.

TABLE 50: Proposed Salary Schedule, Full-time Supervising Principals *

A. MASTER'S DEGREE			
Experience	School Size To 300 ADA	School Size 301-599 ADA	School Size 600 ADA-Up
0			
1			
2			
3	Teacher's Base Salary x 170%	Teacher's Base Salary x 175%	Teacher's Base Salary x 180%
4	Base x 170%	Base x 175%	Base x 180%
5	Base x 170%	Base x 175%	Base x 180%
6	Base x 170%	Base x 175%	Base x 180%
7	Base x 170%	Base x 175%	Base x 180%
8	Base x 170%	Base x 175%	Base x 180%
9	Base x 170%	Base x 175%	Base x 180%
10	Base x 170%	Base x 175%	Base x 180%
11	Base x 170%	Base x 175%	Base x 180%
12	Base x 170%	Base x 175%	Base x 180%
13	Base x 170%	Base x 175%	Base x 180%
14	Base x 170%	Base x 175%	Base x 180%
15	Base x 170%	Base x 175%	Base x 180%
16	Base x 170%	Base x 175%	Base x 180%
17	Base x 170%	Base x 175%	Base x 180%
18	Base x 170%	Base x 175%	Base x 180%
19	Base x 170%	Base x 175%	Base x 180%
20	Base x 170%	Base x 175%	Base x 180%

B. Allow an additional experience increment (\$60) for each year of experience as a full-time principal, not to exceed ten (10) such increments. Total additional annual salary which is possible to allow under this section of the formula is \$600.

* From Bascom Hayes, *The Status of Texas Elementary School Principals—Salary Schedules, Certification, Recruitment, and Pre-Service Preparation*, Service Bulletin, Texas Elementary Principals and Supervisors Association (1953), p. 16.

In the past most principals' salary schedules have been "dollar" schedules in which each position on the schedule specified the exact amount of salary the individual would receive. The schedule recommended by the Department of Elementary School Principals (Table 48) is a "dollar" schedule. The difficulty with the recommended schedule in Table 48 is that it is a schedule for elementary-school principals only; it is not a projected schedule for all principals in a school system. Any "dollar" schedule has the limitation of being useful in only a small number of school systems; living costs and other factors differ enough among urban communities, and among urban and rural areas, so that a given schedule cannot be applicable in too many places. Another limitation of a "dollar" schedule is the problem of revision. Teachers' salary schedules are revised frequently, principals' schedules less frequently. When the principals' schedule is separate from the teachers' schedule, it requires a completely separate series of steps to revise the principals' schedule.

TABLE 51: Suggested Salary Schedule, Full-time Supervising Principals *

A. DOCTOR'S DEGREE	School Size To 300 ADA	School Size 301-599 ADA	School Size 600 ADA-Up
Experience			
0			
1			
2			
3	Teacher's Base Salary x 180%	Teacher's Base Salary x 185%	Teacher's Base Salary x 190%
4	Base x 180%	Base x 185%	Base x 190%
5	Base x 180%	Base x 185%	Base x 190%
6	Base x 180%	Base x 185%	Base x 190%
7	Base x 180%	Base x 185%	Base x 190%
8	Base x 180%	Base x 185%	Base x 190%
9	Base x 180%	Base x 185%	Base x 190%
10	Base x 180%	Base x 185%	Base x 190%
11	Base x 180%	Base x 185%	Base x 190%
12	Base x 180%	Base x 185%	Base x 190%
13	Base x 180%	Base x 185%	Base x 190%
14	Base x 180%	Base x 185%	Base x 190%
15	Base x 180%	Base x 185%	Base x 190%
16	Base x 180%	Base x 185%	Base x 190%
17	Base x 180%	Base x 185%	Base x 190%
18	Base x 180%	Base x 185%	Base x 190%
19	Base x 180%	Base x 185%	Base x 190%
20	Base x 180%	Base x 185%	Base x 190%

- B. Allow an additional experience increment (\$60) for each year of experience as a full-time principal, not to exceed ten (10) such increments. Total additional annual salary which is possible to allow under this section of the formula is \$600.

* From Bascom Hayes, *The Status of Texas Elementary School Principals - Salary Schedules, Certification, Recruitment, and Pre-Service Preparation*, Service Bulletin, Texas Elementary Principals and Supervisors Association (1953), p. 17.

The weaknesses of a "dollar" schedule are avoided in "percentage" schedules. In the latter type schedule the base is the amount the individual would receive if he were a classroom teacher in the same school system. His place on the teachers' schedule would take professional preparation and teaching experience into account. His salary as a principal would be a percentage increment above his salary as a teacher; the size of the increment would depend upon the percentage formula used, and the consideration given to size of school and experience as a principal. Tables 49, 50, 51, and 52 illustrate "percentage" schedules. The first three of the tables illustrate different schedules for persons holding the Bachelor's, the Master's, or the Doctor's degree. Table 52 illustrates the schedule for teaching principals having various numbers of periods free during the official school day for administrative and supervisory duties. All four of these schedules may be applied to all principals, elementary-school principals only, or secondary-school principals only. The percentages can be adjusted to fit any local situation.

TABLE 52: Proposed Salary Schedule, Part-time Principals *

A.						
BACHELOR'S DEGREE						
	No Periods Free	One Period Free	Two Periods Free	Three Periods Free	Four Periods Free	Five Periods Free
Exp.						
0	†TBx120%	TBx125%	TBx130%	TBx135%	TBx140%	TBx145%
1	TBx120%	TBx125%	TBx130%	TBx135%	TBx140%	TBx145%
.						
.						
20	TBx120%	TBx125%	TBx130%	TBx135%	TBx140%	TBx145%
MASTER'S DEGREE						
0	TBx125%	TBx130%	TBx135%	TBx140%	TBx145%	TBx150%
.						
.						
20	TBx125%	TBx130%	TBx135%	TBx140%	TBx145%	TBx150%
DOCTOR'S DEGREE						
0	TBx135%	TBx140%	TBx145%	TBx150%	TBx155%	TBx160%
.						
.						
20	TBx135%	TBx140%	TBx145%	TBx150%	TBx155%	TBx160%
B. Allow an additional experience increment of \$30 for each year of experience as a principal, not to exceed ten (10) such increments.						

* From Bascom Hayes, *The Status of Texas Elementary School Principals: Salary Schedules, Certification, Recruitment, and Pre-Service Preparation*, Service Bulletin, Texas Elementary Principals and Supervisors Association (1953), p. 18.

† TB means Teacher's Base Salary.

On the assumption that no person would be appointed to a principalship until he had had at least two years of teaching experience, the way the schedules operate can be seen in the following illustration for full-time principals. In the illustration it is assumed that the teacher's base pay for the Bachelor's degree and no experience is \$2,700; for the Master's degree and no experience, \$3,000; and for the Doctor's degree with no experience, \$3,600. The salary of a principal would be: ³⁷

Bachelor's Degree

1. Small Bracket School: (Up to 300 ADA)

- (a) Teacher's base of \$2,700 plus \$60 increments for 2 years equals \$2,820, the teacher's salary having 2 years of experience.
\$2,820 x 1.50 equals \$4,230, the beginning principal's annual salary.

³⁷ Bascom Hayes, *The Status of Texas Elementary Principals: Salary Schedules, Certification, Recruitment, and Pre-Service Preparation*, Service Bulletin, Texas Elementary Principals and Supervisors Association (1953).

- (b) Teacher's base of \$2,700 plus \$60 increments for 20 years ($\$60 \times 20$ equals \$1,200) equals \$3,900, the teacher's salary having 20 years of experience.
 $\$3,900 \times 1.50$ equals \$5,750, the annual salary of a principal having 20 years of over-all educational experience.
2. Middle Bracket School: (301-599 ADA)
 - (a) $\$2,820 \times 1.55$ equals \$4,371, for beginning principal.
 - (b) $\$3,900 \times 1.55$ equals \$6,045, for a principal having 20 years of over-all experience.
 3. Large Bracket School: (600 or more ADA)
 - (a) $\$2,820 \times 1.60$ equals \$4,512, for beginning principal.
 - (b) $\$3,900 \times 1.60$ equals \$6,240, for a principal having 20 years of over-all experience.

Master's Degree

1. Small Bracket School: (Up to 300 ADA)
 - (a) Teacher's base of \$3,000 plus \$60 increments for 2 years of experience equals \$3,120, the teacher's salary having 2 years of experience.
 $\$3,120 \times 1.70$ equals \$5,304, the beginning principal's annual salary.
 - (b) Teacher's base of \$3,000 plus \$60 increments for 20 years of experience equals \$4,200. ($\$3,000$ plus $(\$60 \times 20)$.)
 $\$4,200 \times 1.70$ equals \$7,140, the annual salary of a principal having 20 years of over-all experience.
2. Middle Bracket School: (301-599 ADA)
 - (a) $\$3,120 \times 1.75$ equals \$5,460, for beginning principal.
 - (b) $\$4,200 \times 1.75$ equals \$7,350, for principal with 20 years of over-all experience.
3. Large Bracket School: (600 or more ADA)
 - (a) $\$3,120 \times 1.80$ equals \$5,616, for beginning principal.
 - (b) $\$4,200 \times 1.80$ equals \$7,560, for a principal with 20 years of over-all experience.

Doctor's Degree

1. Small Bracket School: (Up to 300 ADA)
 - (a) Teacher's base of \$3,600 plus \$60 increments for 2 years of experience equals \$3,720, the teacher's annual salary having 2 years of experience.
 $\$3,720 \times 1.80$ equals \$6,696, the beginning principal's annual salary.
 - (b) Teacher's base of \$3,600 plus \$60 increments for 20 years of experience equals \$4,800.
 $\$4,800 \times 1.80$ equals \$8,640, the principal's annual salary with 20 years of over-all experience.
2. Middle Bracket School (301-599 ADA)
 - (a) $\$3,720 \times 1.85$ equals \$6,882, beginning principal's salary.
 - (b) $\$4,800 \times 1.85$ equals \$8,880, the principal's annual salary with 20 years of over-all experience.
3. Large Bracket School: (600 or more ADA)
 - (a) $\$3,720 \times 1.90$ equals \$7,068, beginning principal's salary.
 - (b) $\$4,800 \times 1.90$ equals \$9,120, the principal's annual salary with 20 years of over-all experience.

For each bracket, a full-time principal may earn an additional \$600 per year for experience as principal, after having served in this capacity for ten years. This means that the total annual maximum salaries become:

Bachelor's Degree	Small,	\$6,350.00
	Middle,	6,645.00
	Large,	6,840.00
Master's Degree	Small,	\$7,740.00
	Middle,	7,950.00
	Large,	8,160.00
Doctor's Degree	Small,	\$9,240.00
	Middle,	9,480.00
	Large,	9,720.00

Similarly, the salary of part-time principals is calculated, but in each preparation classification, the principal may be put on schedule without having had previous teaching experience. It is believed this is necessary in order to insure that the very small schools will have the opportunity to employ personnel for such positions.

A part-time principal may earn an additional \$30.00 per year for experience as a part-time principal. These increments may continue for ten years, sufficient to allow a total of \$300.00 in annual salary.

THE ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP AS A CAREER IN ADMINISTRATION

The elementary-school principalship in America is of sufficient importance, and its duties and responsibilities are of sufficient scope and magnitude to challenge the abilities of the most competent persons in the profession and to command a place among the professions which are selected by individuals as life-time interests. Throughout the preceding chapters attention has been called to the breadth of general and professional knowledge and administrative ability which *must* be among the possessions of an individual who accepts the responsibilities for the organization, direction, and supervision of an elementary school. Modern theories and principles of education cannot find expression in classroom instruction unless the organization and administration of the school facilitate at every turn the application of current educational science. A review of the many tasks which fall to the hands of the principal, and the leadership which the administrative head of the school should demonstrate, provide convincing evidence that an elementary principal who measures up to his job is a person whose abilities command universal respect. And when such statements can be made about a position, it may well be ranked among the professions which are considered a life work.

The development of the principalship itself adds to the attractiveness of the position as a career in administration. In tracing briefly the history of the elementary-school principal, attention was called to the fact that the professionalization of the position has taken place largely since 1921.

Within the past decade principals have qualified themselves to perform in a more capable manner the increasing number of responsibilities which were being delegated to them in a growing organization. As principals have become qualified to exert leadership, superintendents and boards of education have not been reluctant to rearrange the programs of principals to give them opportunity to apply their professional knowledges. In gradually increasing proportions, elementary-school principals have been relieved of classroom-teaching assignments and clerical detail so they might devote their energies to the more important problems of organization, administration, and supervision. This general movement to professionalize the position of the elementary principal promises to continue. The cumbersome machinery for the supervision and administration of the schools which has developed during the past quarter-century is not functioning smoothly at all points, and fundamental reorganizations have already been effected in a number of cities. The conflicts and overlappings of staff duties and responsibilities and the lack of integrated supervisory activities which are becoming evident in some school systems raise serious questions about the manner in which professional leadership has been provided in the past. In the reorganizations which are appearing the elementary-school principal is evolving as the real administrative and supervisory leader of his school. The new challenges confronting elementary principals are large. Whether these challenges will be met satisfactorily will depend upon the principals themselves. The future of the elementary principalship is thus largely in the hands of those now holding the positions. What will they do with it?

The attractiveness of the elementary-school principalship as a career in administration is being enhanced by the fact that in a number of states the professional status of the principal is recognized through state certification regulations. In terms of numbers, elementary-school principals outrank all other groups of administrative and supervisory officers. There are in the United States approximately 21,000 elementary-school principals, 16,000 high-school principals, 3000 county superintendents, and 3000 city superintendents. Of the million teachers in this country, two-thirds are employed in elementary schools. Of the thirty million students attending public elementary and secondary schools, about twenty-three million are in elementary schools. It is evident that the field of service for elementary-school principals is very large.

There are other advantages of the elementary principalship which merit consideration by those who are anticipating a professional career. While accurate figures are not available as to the exact tenure of elementary-school principals, the principalship is generally considered a very stable position. Usually the principal is not subject to the vicissitudes of political changes, either in the government of the city or the administration of the schools. In many of the larger cities tenure is assured by state law, provided good behavior and efficient service prevail. Tenure as measured

by the number of years principals have been in their present positions ranges from a median of 4.4 years in the smaller districts to approximately 8 years in the cities of 10,000 to 30,000 in population. The median for the United States as a whole was 5.8 years in 1947. Pension and retirement provisions for persons engaged in public-school teaching have been established by legislation in two-thirds of the states.

The elementary-school principalship offers many satisfactions which come from the professional status of the position. Few positions offer the continuous opportunities for personal and professional growth and development which may be found in the principalship. Neither are there many types of positions which offer greater opportunities for service. Social position and community contacts are usually readily available to the extent that an individual principal may choose to participate. The principal also enjoys the other advantages of the teaching profession. Of no little importance and satisfaction to the individual is the fact that he, as principal, can claim membership in a group of high-type professional people who ascribe to and adhere to high standards of professional ethics. All told, the elementary-school principalship has much to commend it as a professional career. To make the most of it, principals in service and those anticipating the profession should qualify themselves thoroughly by attendance at professional schools, reading of professional magazines and books, reading of a general cultural character, membership in professional organizations and attendance at their meetings, visitation of schools, home study, and ample apprenticeship experience in teaching and administrative work. It is only as principals become competent professional leaders that the principalship can evolve into the important administrative position which the signs of the times presage. If the professional elementary-school principal—as defined at the beginning of this chapter and as demanded by the fact that the principal holds the key to the improvement of elementary education—can be secured throughout the length and breadth of the land, the principalship will indeed have become a life-interest profession. There will be little need for regarding the elementary principalship as a stepping stone to the junior-high-school or senior-high-school principalship or the superintendency. The writer has little sympathy for the methods of school administration which compel individuals to be constantly preparing themselves for one position while attempting to hold another. The organization and administration of elementary schools as a unit in the system of public education are not likely to attain their ultimate possibilities, and the elementary schools are not likely to make their maximum contribution, so long as disinterested principals use them as parking places while they are awaiting appointments in the secondary schools.

Every elementary-school principal can well afford to strive for the attainment of the 10 rules for living set forth by Willard E. Givens in his

farewell address to the Representative Assembly of the N.E.A. as he was retiring from position as executive secretary of the N.E.A. His 10 rules for living are:⁸⁸

1. Keep skid chains on your tongue. Always say less than you think.
2. Make promises sparingly and keep them faithfully no matter what it costs you.
3. Never let an opportunity pass to say a kind and encouraging thing to or about somebody. Praise good work done regardless of who did it.
4. Be interested in others—interested in their pursuits, their welfare, their homes, and their families. Make merry with those who rejoice, and mourn with those who weep. Let everyone you meet, however humble, feel that you regard him as a person of importance.
5. Be cheerful. Keep the corners of your mouth turned up. Hide your pains, worries, and disappointments under a pleasant smile.
6. Preserve an open mind on all debatable questions. Discuss but don't argue. It is the mark of superior minds to disagree and yet be friendly.
7. Let your virtues, if you have any, speak for themselves and refuse to talk of another's vices. Discourage gossip. Make it a rule to say nothing of another unless it is something good.
8. Be careful of others' feelings. Wit and humor at the other fellow's expense are rarely worth the effort and may hurt where least expected.
9. Pay no attention to ill-natured remarks about you; simply live so that nobody will believe them.
10. Don't be too anxious about getting your just dues. Do your work, be patient, keep your disposition sweet, forget self, and you will be respected and rewarded.

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⁸⁸ Willard E. Givens, "They Aren't Easy," *Journal of the National Education Association*, Vol. 41 (September, 1952), p. 361.



Appendix

CRITERIA FOR APPRAISING LIBRARY SERVICE IN AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

by

Dorothy Jane Crow and Katherine A. Cook

Through an extensive analysis of professional literature dealing with library service in elementary schools, the ensuing outline of criteria was developed. The scale is designed to show the extent to which each phase of good school library service exists in an elementary school. The criteria may be used by those who are initiating library service as well as by those who are desirous of improving present practices.

The authors recognized that the criteria are not of equal weight or importance; but, for practical purposes, the same weight has been assigned to each item. Five scale values are designed for the use of those who desire a numerical or graphic summary. The scale symbols and their meaning are as follows:

0—Feature does not exist, or exists in such small amount or degree as to be negligible.

1—Feature is *present*, but not sufficient for the type of library service implied in the criteria.

2—Feature is *present*, sufficient for the type of library service implied in the criteria.

0—Information is inadequate for a rating.

X—Feature does not apply.

When all items have been scored, a numerical average rating may be obtained for any section of the criteria, for all sections separately, or for the entire outline by using the following procedure:

Sec. I, A, 5, Office Space for the librarian, contains six items. Suppose the ratings on these items were as follows: "0" rating, 1 item; "1" rating, 1 item; "2" rating, 4 items; then 1×0 plus 1×1 plus 4×2 equals 9; 9 divided by 6 (total number of items) equals 1.50. The ratings 0 and X are excluded when figuring the numerical averages.

The average ratings obtained by the above method may be given the following interpretation:

0.00 to 0.49 means that little or no provision is made.

0.50 to 0.99 means that there are some evidences of provisions for library service and facilities but that there is ineffectiveness in practice due to lack of understanding or to uncertainty as to proper use.

1.00 to 1.49 means that some of the elements of adequate library service and its facilities are present and that the total pattern is observable but that some elements are inconsistent with the concept of adequate library service and certain ineffective practices are still in operation.

1.50 to 2.00 means that library service and its facilities are well developed.

The Criteria

I. *Housing and General Equipment.*

A. The Central Library.

1. The Library Room.

a. Location, Size, and Arrangement.

- (1) In schools having six or fewer rooms, either a separate room or classrooms should have adequate provision for a books-and-related materials program. 0 1 2 X
- (2) Every school of six or more teachers should have a separate, especially equipped room, used only as a library. 0 1 2 X
- (3) The library should be located where expansion is possible. 0 1 2 X
- (4) The location should be such that the library will be a light, sunny, airy room with plenty of window space. Glass area should be 20 per cent to 25 per cent of the floor area. 0 1 2 X
- (5) The large elementary school needs two reading rooms, one in which a class group can work informally, and one to be used as a reading reference room; the rooms should be adjacent, with easy access to each other. 0 1 2 X
- (6) The library quarters should be conveniently located near the upper grade classes. 0 1 2 X
- (7) The library quarters should be conveniently located with respect to planned use. 0 1 2 X
- (8) The library quarters should be near the center of interclass traffic. 0 1 2 X
- (9) The library room should always be away from the noise of the playground, gymnasium, and music room, even though this may mean sacrificing a more central location. 0 1 2 X
- (10) The floor plan for the arrangement should be carefully worked out in order to provide efficient service. 0 1 2 X
- (11) The number of entrances should be reduced to a minimum. Corridor entrances to the reading room should be centrally located with double doors. 0 1 2 X
- (12) Doors should swing out in accordance with fire regulations. 0 1 2 X

- | | |
|--|---------|
| (13) Variations in window space should be possible and desirable. | 0 1 2 X |
| (14) School librarians should consult with architects, library furniture dealers, and administrators skilled in schoolhouse planning, as well as with other trained professional librarians, when school libraries are being planned either in new buildings or in renovated space in old buildings. | 0 1 2 X |

b. Seating Capacity and Area.

- | | |
|--|---------|
| (1) Schools of all sizes should plan their reading-room space in terms of the number of people who will be seated at any one time, allowing 25 square feet per reader. | 0 1 2 X |
| (2) For elementary schools, space for seating the largest class (about 35) plus 20 should be provided. | 0 1 2 X |

c. Shelving and Wall Space.

- | | |
|--|---------|
| (1) The library quarters should provide maximum space for shelving and care of library resources. | 0 1 2 X |
| (2) The library quarters should permit a flexible arrangement for materials and equipment. | 0 1 2 X |
| (3) The shelving should not be higher than the average child can reach. | 0 1 2 X |
| (4) The shelving should be the open type. | 0 1 2 X |
| (5) The shelving should conform to dimensions which have been proved most satisfactory. The following dimensions are recommended: | |
| (a) Length of shelves between uprights—3'. | 0 1 2 X |
| (b) Depth of shelves—8"-10". | 0 1 2 X |
| (c) Thickness of shelf (hard wood)—7/8"-13/16". | 0 1 2 X |
| (d) Space (in the clear) between shelves—10". (This is an average. Adjustable feature cares for oversize books.) | 0 1 2 X |
| (e) Height of case (for elementary school)—5'-6'. | 0 1 2 X |
| (f) Base—4"-8". | 0 1 2 X |
| (g) Cornice—2"-3". | 0 1 2 X |
| (6) Adjustable shelving is desirable. | 0 1 2 X |
| (7) If adjustable shelving is used, it must be constructed so that shelves are secure and do not tilt or collapse under the weight of books. | 0 1 2 X |
| (8) All shelving should be built plain, with no overhanging trim either at the top or between the shelves. | 0 1 2 X |

- (9) Special shelving.
- (a) A section should be adapted to the display of newspapers. 0 1 2 X
 - (b) A section should be adapted to the display of periodicals. 0 1 2 X
 - (c) Bottom shelves should slant downward, toward the back, for better title readability. 0 1 2 X
 - (d) For elementary schools, sections adapted to the display and storage of books of the large picturebook type should be provided. 0 1 2 X
 - (e) The dimensions of the storage sections should be 9" by 15". 0 1 2 X
 - (f) Slanting shelves should be provided above these sections so that large picture books could be laid flat. 0 1 2 X
- (10) Low shelving beneath all glass partitions and beneath window areas, in addition to wall shelving, is desirable. 0 1 2 X
- (11) A length or so of counter-height shelving for placement as floor shelving should be used to bound reading areas for certain groups where there is a combination library of elementary and high school. 0 1 2 X
- (12) The long lengths of wall space in the library should be used for shelving. 0 1 2 X
- (13) Thermostats and electric switches should be placed as near as possible to the door or window trim. 0 1 2 X
- (14) If it is necessary for vertical pipes to pass through the library, they should be located in the corners. 0 1 2 X
- (15) Chair rails, wainscoting, and baseboards should be omitted, allowing the shelving to be placed securely against the wall. 0 1 2 X
- d. Furniture and Equipment.**
- (1) In selecting furniture and equipment for the school library, attention should be given to the aesthetic as well as the utilitarian design. 0 1 2 X
 - (2) When schools cannot afford to purchase library equipment, the locally-made equipment should conform to library standards. 0 1 2 X
 - (3) Informal furniture should be used for browsing corners where space for this purpose can be arranged. 0 1 2 X
 - (4) When the library room has a large bay window or fireplace, this particular corner should have special treatment and become

- the most attractive nook in the entire school. 0 1 2 X
- (5) Circulation Desk.
- (a) The desk and chair should be of sitting height. 0 1 2 X
 - (b) Around the entrance and circulation center there should be an open area. 0 1 2 X
 - (c) The circulation desk should be placed to command the main entrance. 0 1 2 X
 - (d) The circulation desk should be built especially to hold the books in circulation, charging tray, library supplies, and special records. 0 1 2 X
 - (e) The circulation desk for an average size room should be straight or L-shaped. 0 1 2 X
 - (f) A standard height type 39" desk requires a suitable swivel chair. 0 1 2 X
- (6) Tables and Chairs.
- (a) Elementary tables should be:
 - 24"-26" height 0 1 2 X
 - 30"-36" width 0 1 2 X
 - 5'-6'6" length 0 1 2 X
 - (b) Round table should be 4'-5' in diameter. 0 1 2 X
 - (c) Chairs to match should be 14"-16" in height. 0 1 2 X
 - (d) The tables may be either rectangular or circular, seating not more than 6 pupils each. 0 1 2 X
 - (e) Library chairs should be light in construction, strong, without arms, and designed to fit the body. 0 1 2 X
 - (f) Chairs should be equipped with rubber tips or steel gliders with rubber cushions to minimize noise. 0 1 2 X
 - (g) Two or more stools should be provided for use at lower shelves. 0 1 2 X
- (7) The Card Catalog.
- (a) Should have at least five trays for a potential collection of 1000 titles. 0 1 2 X
 - (b) The sectional type of card catalog is most practical. It should be purchased from a reliable dealer in library equipment. 0 1 2 X
 - (c) All drawers in the card catalog should be equipped with rods to hold the cards in place. 0 1 2 X
- (8) The Vertical File for Pictures and Pamphlets.
- (a) Should be legal size—8½" x 14". 0 1 2 X
 - (b) Should be either steel or wood. 0 1 2 X
 - (c) Should come in units. 0 1 2 X
 - (d) Should be near the librarian's desk. 0 1 2 X

(9) Magazine and Newspaper Racks.

- | | |
|--|---------|
| (a) The rack should be a built-in feature of the library, with adequate space provided for correct housing of periodicals. | 0 1 2 X |
| (b) Useful and attractive racks should be purchased from dealers if not built in. | 0 1 2 X |
| (c) There should be provided at least two sections for magazine housing, estimating four magazines for each three-foot slanting shelf. | 0 1 2 X |
| (d) Space should allow for display of two issues of each magazine with minimum estimate of 15 magazine subscriptions. | 0 1 2 X |
| (e) The newspaper and magazine racks should not be near the door. | 0 1 2 X |

(10) Display Cases.

- | | |
|---|---------|
| (a) Display cases for exhibits should be an essential part of any well-organized library. | 0 1 2 X |
| (b) A glass display case about the dimensions of a table should be used for displaying objects and books. | 0 1 2 X |
| (c) Floor space for the case should be equal to that needed for two tables in order to allow groups to see the display. | 0 1 2 X |
| (d) The display case or section should be visible from the entrance. | 0 1 2 X |

(11) Bulletin Boards.

- | | |
|--|---------|
| (a) A prominent section should be reserved for a bulletin board. | 0 1 2 X |
| (b) The bulletin board should be at least 3' by 10'. | 0 1 2 X |
| (c) Small sections of wall space which are not desirable for shelving should be used for bulletin boards. | 0 1 2 X |
| (d) Bulletin boards should be placed low enough for children to see with ease the materials which are displayed. | 0 1 2 X |
| (e) Bulletin boards should be built of a cork material, a fabricated wallboard as "celotex" or "masonite," or other materials suitable for this purpose. | 0 1 2 X |
| (f) The bulletin board should have a smooth pinning surface. | 0 1 2 X |
| (g) Some bulletin boards should be in a portable form to be used as the occasion demands. | 0 1 2 X |
| (h) The bulletin board, artistically arranged, should be an outstanding feature of the library. | 0 1 2 X |

- (i) Pupil participation in planning and arranging the bulletin boards should be encouraged. 0 1 2 X
- (12) A double wooden tray designed especially to hold book cards upright should be used as a charging tray. It holds the cards of all books checked out of the room. 0 1 2 X
- (13) Book Truck.
- (a) Light-weight carrying trays or book trucks enable children to carry conveniently groups of books from the library to the classrooms. 0 1 2 X
- (b) A heavier, more durable type of trough is useful for displaying books in the library and in the classrooms. 0 1 2 X
- (14) Shelf Label Holders and Book Supports.
- (a) The labels should aid children in locating books. 0 1 2 X
- (b) The best type of shelf holder is made of metal and is nailed to the shelf. 0 1 2 X
- (c) The label holder should be purchased from any library supply house. 0 1 2 X
- (d) One shelf label holder should be placed in the middle of each shelf. 0 1 2 X
- (e) The label in each holder should indicate the type of books on the shelf above. 0 1 2 X
- (f) Book supports should be on each shelf to hold the books in an upright position. 0 1 2 X
- (g) Book supports should be of metal with rounding corners. They may be purchased in various colors. 0 1 2 X
- (h) Book supports should be purchased in two sizes—one for regular books and an over-size type for large books. 0 1 2 X
- (15) Map Racks should be provided. 0 1 2 X
- (16) A World Globe should be provided. 0 1 2 X
- (17) Dictionary and Atlas.
- (a) There should be a standard dictionary and atlas. 0 1 2 X
- (b) A revolving stand placed on one of the tables is desirable for holding the dictionary. 0 1 2 X
- (c) If space is available, a separate dictionary stand designed especially for children may be used. 0 1 2 X
- (d) If a separate stand is used, there should be a shelf underneath for an atlas or hand dictionaries. 0 1 2 X

(18) Arrangement of Furniture.

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|---|---------|
| (a) The aisle space between tables (no chairs in aisle) should be 3' minimum. | 0 1 2 X |
| (b) The aisle space between tables (chairs in aisle) should be 5' minimum. | 0 1 2 X |
| (c) The space between table ends and shelving should be 3'-5' minimum, depending upon the use of chairs. | 0 1 2 X |
| (d) The tables should be placed so that pupils will not face light. | 0 1 2 X |
| (e) The bookstacks should be placed so that light is adequate. | 0 1 2 X |
| (f) The circulation desk should be near the exit, commanding the room. | 0 1 2 X |
| (g) The vertical or information file (for pictures, pamphlets, and clippings) should be located near the circulation or reference desk if there is one. | 0 1 2 X |
| (h) The location of the card catalog should be near the circulation desk or reference desk if there is one. | 0 1 2 X |
| (i) The vertical file should be near the librarian's desk. | 0 1 2 X |
| (j) The physical setup of the library should be attractive. | 0 1 2 X |
| (k) Draperies should be hung so that light is not obscured. | 0 1 2 X |
| (l) Venetian blinds, if kept clean and properly adjusted, should be used. | 0 1 2 X |
| (m) Venetian blinds make the use of curtains or drapes unnecessary. | 0 1 2 X |
| (n) Simplicity should be the keynote of all decorations. | 0 1 2 X |
| (o) There should be cut flowers attractively arranged in the library. | 0 1 2 X |
| (p) Permanent decorations should add beauty to the room if appropriately selected and placed. | 0 1 2 X |
| (1') Statuary | 0 1 2 X |
| (2') Potted plants | 0 1 2 X |
| (3') Framed pictures | 0 1 2 X |
| (4') Art objects | 0 1 2 X |
| (5') Hanging baskets, if used sparingly and in good taste | 0 1 2 X |
| (q) Telephone connections with other departments are desirable. | 0 1 2 X |
| (r) Telephones should be equipped with a muffled bell, and switches connecting with the librarian's workroom or office. | 0 1 2 X |
| (s) There should be a clock in the library. | 0 1 2 X |
| (t) Every school library needs a standard typewriter. | 0 1 2 X |

- (19) Library supplies should be purchased from a library supply firm and should include the following:
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| (a) Cataloging supplies. | 0 1 2 X |
| (b) Bookcards. | 0 1 2 X |
| (c) Bookpockets. | 0 1 2 X |
| (d) Date slips. | 0 1 2 X |
| (e) Ink for lettering. | 0 1 2 X |
| (f) White shellac. | 0 1 2 X |
| (g) Wood alcohol. | 0 1 2 X |
| (h) Rubber stamps (name of library, date stamp, etc.). | 0 1 2 X |
| (i) Stamp pads. | 0 1 2 X |
| (j) Charging guide cards. | 0 1 2 X |
| (k) Pamphlet binder. | 0 1 2 X |
| (l) Pressboard guides. | 0 1 2 X |
| (m) Mending supplies. | 0 1 2 X |
| (n) Craft envelopes. | 0 1 2 X |
| (o) Manila folders (legal size). | 0 1 2 X |
- (20) Small supplies to be obtained from regular school supply room include:
- | | |
|----------|------------------|
| Pencils | Rubber bands |
| Paper | Paper clips |
| Pens | Desk blotters |
| Erasers | Thumb tacks |
| Blotters | Pencil sharpener |
| Paste | Paste brush |
| Crayons | Poster paint |
| Paints | Ink (blue) |

Heating, Lighting, and Ventilation.

- (1) Heating.
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|--|---------|
| (a) Heating should be controlled by the general school construction. | 0 1 2 X |
| (b) As far as possible, radiators and steam pipes should be placed under windows away from books. | 0 1 2 X |
| (c) Heating apparatus should be placed under windows, between floors or in corridors, or occupy, along with the openings from ventilating shafts, a position above the shelving. | 0 1 2 X |
| (d) Asbestos protection should be provided if shelves are built above radiators or near steam pipes. | 0 1 2 X |
- (2) Lighting.
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| (a) The library quarters should include adequate natural light, with satisfactory window shades and provision for needed artificial light. | 0 1 2 X |
| (b) There should be electric outlets at all work centers and on every wall side. | 0 1 2 X |

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| (c) The lighting should be adequate to provide 15- to 20-foot candlepower on any table in the room. | 0 1 2 X |
| (d) The best type of light fixture is the indirect or semi-indirect ceiling fixture. | 0 1 2 X |
| (e) The top window glass should be as near the ceiling as possible. | 0 1 2 X |
| (f) Two shades maintained on separate rollers should be placed near the center of the window, one operating upward and the other downward. | 0 1 2 X |
| <i>or</i> | |
| (g) Venetian blinds add materially to the attractiveness of the room and cost little more than double-roller shades. | 0 1 2 X |
| (3) Ventilation. | |
| (a) Variations in window space should be possible and desirable. | 0 1 2 X |
| (b) All windows should be made to open for good ventilation. | 0 1 2 X |
| (c) Windows should be screened. | 0 1 2 X |
| (d) Ample provision should be made for ventilation, but vents should not interfere with space that is valuable for wall shelving. | 0 1 2 X |
| f. Finishes and Woodwork. | |
| (1) The library quarters should be made attractive, colorful, and inviting. | 0 1 2 X |
| (2) Library quarters should have acoustical ceiling treatment. | 0 1 2 X |
| (3) If walls are plastered, the finish should be smooth to avoid rough contact with books. | 0 1 2 X |
| (4) Good colors for the walls should be light buff, light gray or white tones, with sea green or light blue. | 0 1 2 X |
| (5) Ivory white should be a good color for the ceiling. | 0 1 2 X |
| (6) For north or east exposure, effective colors are peach or pale yellow. | 0 1 2 X |
| (7) Back of shelves should be the same color as walls or a harmonizing light color. | 0 1 2 X |
| (8) The surfaces should be finished with flat or matte paints or dull-surface materials. | 0 1 2 X |
| g. Floors. | |
| (1) The library floor should always be covered. | 0 1 2 X |
| (2) The most satisfactory floor covering is heavy linoleum or some good type of noiseless floor covering. | 0 1 2 X |

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| (3) Attractive colors should be selected. | 0 1 2 X |
| (4) If floor covering cannot be purchased, wooden floors should be refinished, or else scrubbed, stained, shellacked, and waxed. | 0 1 2 X |

2. Workroom and Storage Space.

a. Workroom.

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| (1) A workroom with running water adjoining the reading room and with storage space for supplies and for books being processed and repaired should be provided. | 0 1 2 X |
| (2) The library workroom should be provided with the following: | |
| (a) Desk and chair. | 0 1 2 X |
| (b) Typewriter. | 0 1 2 X |
| (c) Running water and lavatory. | 0 1 2 X |
| (d) Worktable. | 0 1 2 X |
| (e) Shelving space for books not ready for use. | 0 1 2 X |
| (f) Locked storage facilities for supplies. | 0 1 2 X |
| (g) One or more electric outlets. | 0 1 2 X |
| (3) The librarian should have a place and space in which to spread out her working materials, and leave them where they will be undisturbed. | 0 1 2 X |
| (4) The workroom should always adjoin the library. | 0 1 2 X |
| (5) It is desirable to provide space in the workroom for supplementary readers and similar textbook materials. | 0 1 2 X |
| (6) There should be provided a sink and a long drain board, or a wide shelf attached to the wall which can be raised or lowered when needed. | 0 1 2 X |
| (7) The room should have windows to insure air and light. Artificial light should be provided if necessary. | 0 1 2 X |
| (8) The workroom should have a work table with four or five chairs. | 0 1 2 X |
| (9) An electrical outlet at table height should be placed convenient to the work table. | 0 1 2 X |
| (10) A small stepladder, for reaching high shelves, should be available. | 0 1 2 X |
| (11) A catalog file should be provided for the librarian. | 0 1 2 X |
| (12) The workroom minimum area should be 132 square feet (11' x 12'). | 0 1 2 X |

b. Storage Space.

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| (1) Storage space should be provided for: | |
| (a) Library supplies. | 0 1 2 X |
| (b) Large colored paper for mounting. | 0 1 2 X |
| (c) Flower vases. | 0 1 2 X |
| (2) Cupboard space should be carefully and wisely planned for the materials which are to be housed. | 0 1 2 X |
| (3) The cupboards should have doors. | 0 1 2 X |
| (4) Large shallow drawers should be placed under the drainboard or in the cupboard to house large posters, flat maps, large colored papers, and other materials. | 0 1 2 X |
| (5) All other wall space should be used for shelving. | 0 1 2 X |
| (6) From 200 to 230 square feet should be given to the storage area, and it should be adjacent to the reading center. | 0 1 2 X |
| (7) In the larger school, work and storage space should be separated. | 0 1 2 X |

3. Conference Room or Rooms.

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| a. Conference rooms for use by groups working together and for teacher-pupil guidance conferences should be provided. | 0 1 2 X |
| b. The supervision of this room should be simplified by the use of glass partitions. | 0 1 2 X |
| c. In a small school which is unable to provide a conference room, a secluded corner of the library may be set aside for the special use of committees or groups | 0 1 2 X |
| d. The conference room or rooms should be adjacent to the reading area. | 0 1 2 X |
| e. Each conference room should have an area of about 120 square feet. | 0 1 2 X |
| f. For schools which are part of teacher-training centers, an additional reading and conference area for practice teachers is recommended. | 0 1 2 X |

4. Audio-Visual Area, Equipment, and Materials.

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| a. Rooms for previewing films and for listening to radio programs and recordings should be provided. | 0 1 2 X |
| b. Storage space should be provided for audio-visual material and equipment. | 0 1 2 X |
| (1) The storage for film strips should be shallow (1-¾")-drawer cabinets, with overall dimensions: 15" wide, 12" deep, 13" high. | 0 1 2 X |
| (2) The storage for stereographs should contain space for 3¼" x 4" slides and 2" x 2" slides, and cabinets with trays of appropriate size. | 0 1 2 X |

- (3) The storage for recordings should be provided in two depths, one to hold 12" recordings and one to hold 16" transcriptions. Vertical housing is preferred. 0 1 2 X
- (4) The storage for projectors, portable radios, playback machines, and other equipment should be in cupboards of appropriate size. 0 1 2 X
- (5) The storage place for maps and posters should be a cabinet with four or five shallow (3") drawers, 36" wide and 25" deep, with a table base; or a wall storage case, at least 25" x 36" x 6". The top of this wall case should not be more than waist-high from the floor. 0 1 2 X
- (6) All cabinets for storage should have doors. 0 1 2 X
- c. The audio-visual room (for previewing films) should be equipped with dark curtains. 0 1 2 X
- d. Audio-visual aids should be administered as part of the school-library collection. 0 1 2 X
- e. A room of average classroom size should be provided adjacent to the reading center or to the conference room or work areas for use of the moving picture projector by classes, committees, or individuals. 0 1 2 X
- f. The following equipment should be available:
- (1) A screen for projection. 0 1 2 X
 - (2) Chairs for a class group. 0 1 2 X
 - (3) A conference table 3' by 5'. 0 1 2 X
 - (4) A demonstration table or bench. 0 1 2 X
 - (5) Switches and outlets near the top of the table at one end. 0 1 2 X
 - (6) A table or bench, placed the length of the room from the screen, to be used for projection. 0 1 2 X
 - (7) A turntable equipped with earphones and designed to turn at various speeds. 0 1 2 X
 - (8) A wire or tape recorder. 0 1 2 X
- g. Audio-visual materials or aids accessible to the school should include:
- (1) Motion picture films. 0 1 2 X
 - (2) Photographs and prints. 0 1 2 X
 - (3) Exhibits. 0 1 2 X
 - (4) Specimens and models. 0 1 2 X
 - (5) Graphic and pictorial charts. 0 1 2 X
 - (6) Maps and globes. 0 1 2 X
 - (7) Stereographs. 0 1 2 X
 - (8) Slides. 0 1 2 X
 - (9) Film strips. 0 1 2 X
 - (10) Phonograph recordings. 0 1 2 X
 - (11) Viewmaster. 0 1 2 X

5. Office Space for Librarian.

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| a. There should be as much as 120 square feet of office space for the use of the librarian. | 0 1 2 X |
| b. If separate room is available for office space, it should be adjacent to the reading center and to the work area. | 0 1 2 X |
| c. The librarian should have a desk and chair. | 0 1 2 X |
| d. The location of the desk should give the librarian maximum opportunity for supervision. | 0 1 2 X |
| e. There should be a section of low-height shelving for professional books and materials. | 0 1 2 X |
| f. There should be a letter-size office file. | 0 1 2 X |

B. Classroom Use of Library Materials.

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| 1. The ideal arrangement involves a combination of the two ideas—a central library in each school, with provision for circulation of books to classrooms. | 0 1 2 X |
| 2. Any plan is satisfactory which makes a library easily accessible to all children for reference or reading problems and provides time for children to go to the library regularly or when desirable. | 0 1 2 X |
| 3. Each classroom library should contain reading material comparable with the range of reading ability of the pupils in the classroom. | 0 1 2 X |
| 4. For pupils of below-grade ability, easy books should be provided in addition to those with which they are already familiar. | 0 1 2 X |
| 5. The books at each level should supply sufficient practice for the pupils' attainment of the next higher level. | 0 1 2 X |
| 6. So far as possible, enough appropriate material should be provided to enable each child to read at his own level in any required unit of subject matter. | 0 1 2 X |
| 7. The social atmosphere of the class and learning efficiency should improve when each child can enrich the group experiences by his reading of new materials related to the topic under discussion without being tied to the uniform assignment. | 0 1 2 X |
| 8. The library should supply all books for the reading tables or library corners in primary classrooms. | 0 1 2 X |
| 9. Each classroom should be provided with built-in shelving for books, according to the following stipulations: | |
| a. 3' in width. | 0 1 2 X |
| b. At least 11" between shelves. | 0 1 2 X |
| c. Four shelves in the unit. | 0 1 2 X |
| d. Adjustable shelving is desirable. | 0 1 2 X |
| 10. A reading area near the shelves should be provided, large enough for one or two tables and accompanying chairs. | 0 1 2 X |

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| 11. Each classroom should have certain equipment for the use of audio-visual aids: | |
| a. Accoustical ceiling. | 0 1 2 X |
| b. Dark curtains. | 0 1 2 X |
| c. U-channels at the sides of windows to prevent leakage of light at the edge of dark curtains. | 0 1 2 X |
| d. Double electric outlet at the rear and front of the room. | 0 1 2 X |
| e. Egg-crate louver or a similar device affording enough light for note-taking during the projection. | 0 1 2 X |
| f. Controlling switch at the rear of the room. | 0 1 2 X |
| g. Switch controlling luminaries near the door. | 0 1 2 X |
| h. Wind deflectors for the windows, finished in a flat opaque black. | 0 1 2 X |
| 12. A movable projector should be provided which can be placed directly in each classroom and utilized as needed. | 0 1 2 X |
| 13. A light-weight trough with handles, made of plywood, or a book truck should be useful for carrying books to and from the classroom. | 0 1 2 X |
| 14. Teachers and librarian should work together to produce the desired pattern of instruction. | 0 1 2 X |
| 15. Each classroom in Grade 3 and above should have access to up-to-date children's encyclopedias for classroom use as needed. | 0 1 2 X |
| 16. The library corner should be developed in a place where it least interferes with the normal use of the room and where children using the library corner will be disturbed least by the class activities. | 0 1 2 X |
| 17. A bulletin board should be provided for special book announcements and news. | 0 1 2 X |

II. *The Functions of Library Service.*

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| A. To Provide a Well-Rounded Collection of Reading Materials Suitable for Use by Children of Various Ages. | |
| 1. The collection should consist of: | |
| a. Books. | 0 1 2 X |
| b. Pamphlets. | 0 1 2 X |
| c. Magazines. | 0 1 2 X |
| 2. Evaluation of the collection should be made with reference to: | |
| a. Recency of dates of publication. | 0 1 2 X |
| b. Distribution as to subject fields. | 0 1 2 X |
| c. Balance in relation to the school curriculum. | 0 1 2 X |
| d. Balanced distribution of books representing a wide variety of reading levels and interests. | 0 1 2 X |
| e. Wholesome balance in books representing individual interests. | 0 1 2 X |

- f. Adequateness in supplementing the instructional program. 0 1 2 X
- (1) Recommended annual per pupil expenditure of \$1.00 to \$1.50, depending upon the enrollment. The smaller the enrollment, the larger should be the expenditure. 0 1 2 X
 - (2) Recommended number of volumes per pupil of 3 to 10, depending upon the enrollment. The average number of volumes recommended per pupil is 5. 0 1 2 X
3. *Organization* of the collection should render the collection easily accessible to both pupils and teachers. 0 1 2 X
- B. To Promote Curriculum Enrichment, Pupil Exploration, and the Dissemination of Good Literature.
1. Circulation of materials should be adequate for both individual and group needs in the classroom. 0 1 2 X
 - a. Classroom collections should be changed as often as needed.
 2. The librarian and teachers should have a systematic plan for:
 - a. Discussing and evaluating new books and materials suitable for instructional purposes. 0 1 2 X
 - b. Conferring about curriculum plans and needs. 0 1 2 X
 - c. Notifying teachers and pupils about new books, materials, or other aids. 0 1 2 X
 - d. Providing teachers with bibliographies of materials available for curriculum needs. 0 1 2 X
- C. To Give Instruction in the Use of Books and Libraries.
1. Adequate use of the library should be taught both children and teachers by means of:
 - a. A course of study provided by the school system. 0 1 2 X
 - b. A plan whereby both teachers and librarians participate in the program of library instruction. 0 1 2 X
 - c. Individual and group instruction of both the informal and planned type, by classroom teachers and librarians. 0 1 2 X
- D. To Establish Strong Motives for and Permanent Interests in Reading through:
1. Pupil participation in selection of reading materials. 0 1 2 X
 2. A plan whereby children have the opportunity for browsing. 0 1 2 X
 3. Attractive and interesting exhibits of new books. 0 1 2 X
 4. A cheerful and attractive central library environment, conducive to a feeling of relaxation and enjoyment. 0 1 2 X
 5. An attractive classroom library corner. 0 1 2 X
 6. Calling the attention of individual pupils to reading materials of special interest to them. 0 1 2 X

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| 7. Encouraging circulation of school library books for home reading. | 0 1 2 X |
| 8. A plan for promoting progressive improvement in quality of reading materials chosen by individual children. | 0 1 2 X |
| 9. Encouraging and educating children in the use of the public library. | 0 1 2 X |
| 10. Keeping a record of out-of-school reading of: | 0 1 2 X |
| <i>a.</i> Books from the school library. | 0 1 2 X |
| <i>b.</i> Books from the public library. | 0 1 2 X |
| E. To Gather in a Central Place and to Prepare for Use All Slides and Pictures, Magazines, Books, and Other Materials that Will Be Used by Teachers and Pupils in Classroom Work. | |
| 1. The library should be responsible for all the facilities and materials used by teachers and pupils. | |
| 2. There should be a systematic plan for receiving, classifying, and preparing for circulation the following materials: | |
| <i>a.</i> Books. | 0 1 2 X |
| <i>b.</i> Bulletins. | 0 1 2 X |
| <i>c.</i> Exhibit materials. | 0 1 2 X |
| <i>d.</i> Films. | 0 1 2 X |
| <i>e.</i> Phonograph records. | 0 1 2 X |
| <i>f.</i> Slides. | 0 1 2 X |
| <i>g.</i> Magazines. | 0 1 2 X |
| 3. Files of the materials listed above should be balanced in relation to the curriculum and should be adequate to supplement the instructional program. | 0 1 2 X |
| 4. The plan of organization should insure accessibility and adequate use of materials by teachers and pupils. | |
| <i>a.</i> The card catalog should be arranged alphabetically with author, title, and subject card for each book title. | 0 1 2 X |
| <i>b.</i> Bulletins should be filed in a legal-size vertical file. They should be filed alphabetically by subject, according to a carefully worked-out list of subject headings. | 0 1 2 X |
| <i>c.</i> The picture collection may be filed in a separate, legal-size vertical file, or with the pamphlet collection. | 0 1 2 X |
| <i>d.</i> Phonograph records should be filed and cataloged according to a plan. | 0 1 2 X |
| <i>e.</i> There should be a file for slides and films, rating to be based on variety and accessibility, even though they are not housed in the school itself. | 0 1 2 X |
| <i>f.</i> Magazines should be accessible to both pupils and teachers. | 0 1 2 X |

- g. Library exhibits that further reading and library activities may feature books, hobbies, collections, etc., growing out of classroom work or activities. 0 1 2 X
5. The files and records should be kept up-to-date. 0 1 2 X
- F. To Provide Guidance for Children in the Selection and Use of Reading Materials.
 1. Procedures should be employed in the school to enable teachers to know the reading capacities, interests, and abilities of individual children. 0 1 2 X
 - a. The procedures employed should be adequate for the instructional program. 0 1 2 X
 - b. There should be a plan for informing the librarian of the individual differences in reading abilities, interests, and needs of certain children. 0 1 2 X
- G. To Give, through Story-Telling and Reading, a Background for the Appreciation of Literature and a Basis for the Broad Interpretation of Life Situations.
 1. The school program should provide a story hour in each grade. The story hour should include:
 - a. The reading and telling of stories to children by the teacher or librarian. 0 1 2 X
 - b. The reading and telling of stories by children in an audience situation. 0 1 2 X
 2. The library should contain phonograph records of children's rhymes, plays, and stories. 0 1 2 X
 3. The school program should utilize radio programs in the instructional program. 0 1 2 X
 - a. Educational broadcasts should be utilized regularly. 0 1 2 X
 - b. The broadcasts should be utilized in the instructional program when properly related to the curriculum. 0 1 2 X
 4. The school should sponsor a special reading or library club for children who have special interests along the line of reading. 0 1 2 X
 5. The librarian should provide teachers with lists of radio programs and victrola records suitable for children of various ages. 0 1 2 X
- H. To Promote Wholesome Use of Leisure Time.
 1. The library should be open before and after school to allow for leisure reading or browsing. 0 1 2 X
 2. The school library should be open during vacation periods. 0 1 2 X
 3. The library should be accessible during the school day so that children can come in and borrow books on an individual basis. 0 1 2 X
 4. The library should encourage the checking out of books for out-of-school reading. 0 1 2 X

5. The librarian should distribute suggested lists of books:
 - a. From which children might choose books for themselves or other children at holidays and birthdays. 0 1 2 X
 - b. To assist parents in building a home library or in choosing gifts for others. 0 1 2 X
 - c. For children's summer reading. 0 1 2 X
- I. To Provide Fruitful Social Experience.
1. There should be adult supervision in the library at all hours that children have access to the library. 0 1 2 X
 2. Provision should be made for helping children acquire appropriate patterns of behavior when in the library. 0 1 2 X
 - a. Teachers and librarians should stress the type of good citizenship which is based on respect for the rights of others. 0 1 2 X
 - b. Teachers may correlate the taking of classes to the library with the teaching of courtesy. 0 1 2 X
 3. Pupils should be used as library assistants. 0 1 2 X
 - a. The librarian should employ a plan for training library assistants. 0 1 2 X
 4. Pupils should use the library for conferences or committee meetings. 0 1 2 X
 - a. The librarian should supply a schedule for use of the library for conferences or committee meetings. 0 1 2 X
 5. Pupils should participate in planning and arranging bulletin boards, exhibits, or other attractions in the library. 0 1 2 X
 - a. The librarian should employ a plan for using classroom work and pupils' assistance in planning and arranging bulletin boards, exhibits, and other attractions in the library. 0 1 2 X
- J. To Provide Reading Materials for Adults.
1. There should be a professional library for teachers. 0 1 2 X
 - a. The professional library should include professional books and periodicals. 0 1 2 X
 - b. There should be a plan for the use and maintenance of the professional library. 0 1 2 X
 2. There should be a teachers' conference and study room near the library. 0 1 2 X
 3. The library should have books for parents on topics concerning child care. 0 1 2 X
 - a. The library should have a plan for loaning books on child care to parents. 0 1 2 X
 - b. Books on child care should be accessible to parents for use in the school. 0 1 2 X
 - c. The library should prepare and distribute to parents lists of books on child care, according to a plan worked out by the principal and librarian. 0 1 2 X

III. *Qualifications and Duties of Library Personnel in an Elementary-School Library.*

A. The Duties of the School Librarian.

1. The school librarian has the responsibility for the organization and use of materials collection and the general direction of library service to pupils and teachers. **This responsibility should include:**

a. Cataloging and classifying books.	0 1 2 X
b. Selecting and securing books and other instructional materials.	0 1 2 X
c. Keeping business records and arranging for support and control.	0 1 2 X
d. Planning buildings and equipment as they relate to library service.	0 1 2 X
e. Organizing and managing the library staff.	0 1 2 X
f. Organizing and directing a simple system by which the library and its materials are accessible to pupils and teachers.	0 1 2 X
g. Installing a system by which books may be borrowed for home use.	0 1 2 X
2. The librarian shares with the principal and teachers the responsibility for making the library function as an integral part of the school. The librarian should:

a. Make available to pupils and teachers a well-rounded collection of library materials which meets the needs of the classroom for both curricular and recreational use.	0 1 2 X
b. Make recommendations to the principal concerning administrative policy, materials, and books for the library.	0 1 2 X
c. Make available in every possible way materials for teachers.	0 1 2 X
d. Make lists of bibliographies of books and other aids in connection with the curriculum.	0 1 2 X
e. Aid in extra-curricular problems, interests, and hobbies.	0 1 2 X
f. Notify teachers of new and suitable material for classwork.	0 1 2 X
3. The librarian must familiarize herself with the entire elementary school program, understand its underlying philosophies and methods of teaching, and keep the library in step with the changing curriculum. She can **do this by the following means:**

a. Assisting pupils and teachers with their problems and needs through cooperation and guidance.	0 1 2 X
b. Having knowledge of teaching methods.	0 1 2 X
c. Becoming familiar with courses of study.	0 1 2 X
d. Participating in faculty meetings.	0 1 2 X
4. The librarian should supplement the work of the classroom teacher by stimulating and encouraging interest

in reading and giving reading guidance to children. These functions can be fulfilled in the following ways:

- | | |
|---|---------|
| a. Recognizing children's interests and helping them to expand their interests through reading | 0 1 2 X |
| b. Attending to circulation, publicity, and instruction in the use of book tools. | 0 1 2 X |
| c. Sharing with teachers the guidance and stimulation of children's reading. | 0 1 2 X |
| d. Helping boys and girls to broaden their fields of knowledge through the use of books | 0 1 2 X |
| e. Relating the school library to the public library | 0 1 2 X |
| f. Encouraging pupils to build personal libraries | 0 1 2 X |
| 5. The school librarian must develop the atmosphere and services of the library in such a way that the library will become a place which students and faculty will enjoy. The library should be: | |
| a. An easy place to use—one with a pleasing and friendly atmosphere that is free from restraint | 0 1 2 X |
| b. A good place to teach citizenship and social behavior. | 0 1 2 X |
| c. A place for stimulation of leisure reading | 0 1 2 X |
| d. A central place for attractive displays and exhibits of pupils' work. | 0 1 2 X |
| e. A place for conferences and committee meetings | 0 1 2 X |

B. Qualifications of the Librarian.

1. Personal:

- | | |
|---|---------|
| a. The librarian should have organizing ability, including traits of accuracy, neatness, industry, and systematism. | 0 1 2 X |
| b. The librarian should have a genuine liking for children and a sympathetic understanding of them and of their problems. | 0 1 2 X |
| c. The librarian should have a genuine and sincere enthusiasm for books and life | 0 1 2 X |
| d. The librarian should have breadth of interest achieved through study, reading, travel, and participation in various activities. | 0 1 2 X |
| e. The librarian should have a sense of humor and be able to understand the child's viewpoint | 0 1 2 X |
| f. The librarian should have dignity and self-control in order to have patience with children, teachers, and parents. | 0 1 2 X |
| g. The librarian should have imagination, good memory, and understanding in order to share enjoyment with and to guide pupils | 0 1 2 X |
| h. The librarian should be cooperative, striving for social adjustment through an understanding of people. | 0 1 2 X |
| i. The librarian should have steady nerves, an alert mind, a sympathetic and understanding attitude, a | |

person who is orderly and readily adaptable but **not domineering.**

0 1 1 X

1. The librarian should have good health and vitality from which emanate desirable qualities such as physical and mental poise, self-reliance and **personal magnetism.**

0 1 2 X

2. The librarian should dress attractively and neatly, exercising care in personal grooming.

0 1 2 X

3. The librarian should cultivate the qualities of voice and manner which make for pleasant social **relationships.**

0 1 2 X

2. Professional

- a. The *librarian* should have the following qualifications:

(1) Completion of four years of college education with adequate special library **training.**

0 1 2 X

(2) Good basic teacher training for the elementary level.

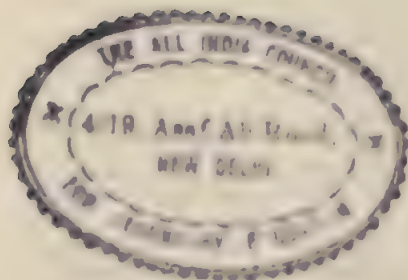
0 1 2 X

(3) Teaching experience.

0 1 2 X

- b. The librarian who meets all requirements for a teaching position in the state or region in which she is working should have equal status as a teacher with regard to salary, tenure, retirement, pension, and so on.

0 1 3 X



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